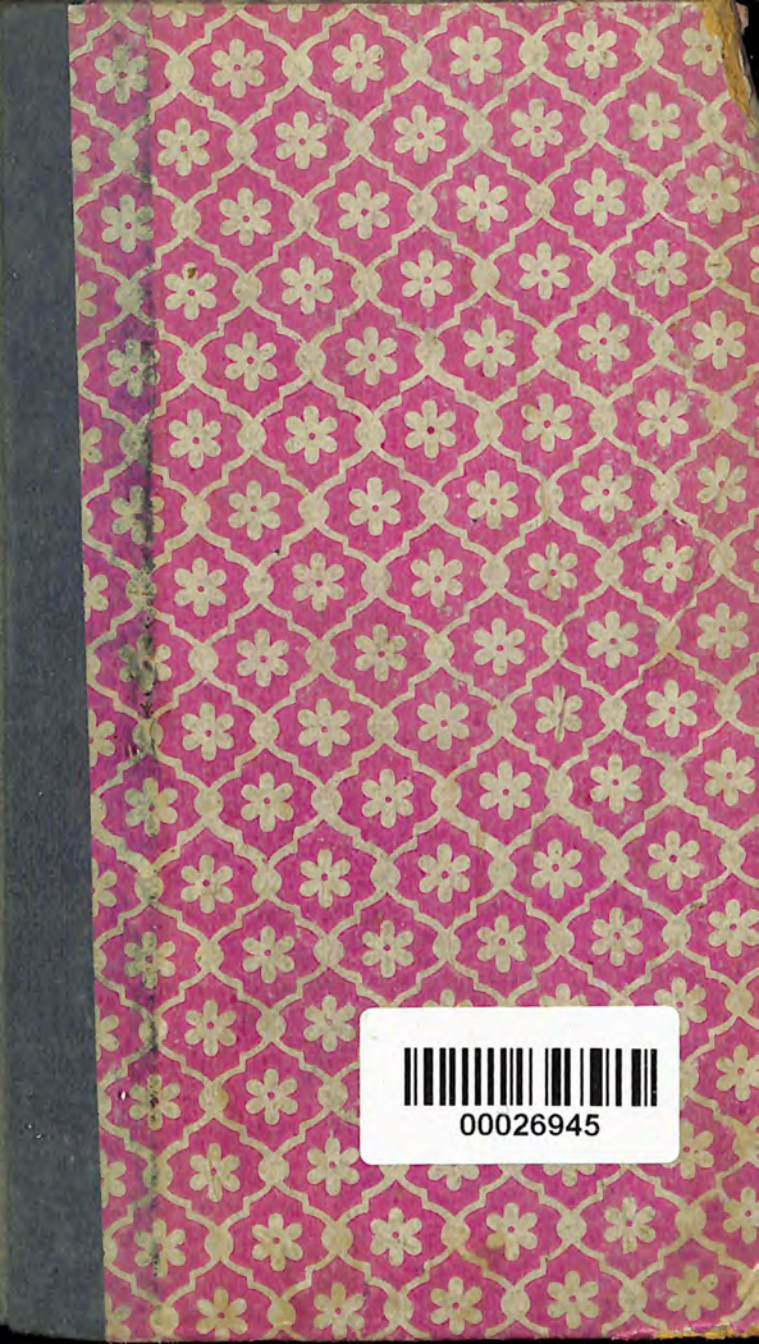
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NEW HOLLAND:

Its Colonization, Productions & Resources,

WITH

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIONS SUBSISTING WITH

GREAT BRITAIN.

BY

THOMAS BARTLETT

ASSISTANT-SURGEON 51ST LIGHT INFANTRY.

"'Tis a base
Abandonment of reason to resign
Our right of thought—our last and only place
Of refuge; this, at least, shall still be mine."

BYRON.

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LONDON:

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PREFACE.

In the two first chapters of the following pages I have endeavoured to show, that very erroneous views have been promulgated on the subject of the Australian colonies. In the six succeeding chapters I have described some points connected with New Holland, which, I believe, calculated to establish the inaccuracy of the opinions so generally entertained. In the ninth chapter, I have shown that there is much fertile land lying waste in the British Isles;—that British agriculture is capable of much improvement, by

which the condition of the laborers may be ameliorated, not only without sacrifice on the part of the wealthier classes, but to their manifest advantage. Chapter the tenth contains some concluding observations on the value of the relations subsisting between Great Britain and New Holland, and on colonization in general.

I have preferred rather to demonstrate the fallacy of views, which are generally entertained on the subject of our colonies in New Holland, than to enter into a comprehensive description of that country; from the belief, that by comprising my observations within the limits of this volume, I should effect greater good than by a more voluminous treatise on all points of detail.

The opinions given in this work are, like all others, open to question,—but having visited

all the Australian colonies, I claim greater consideration for my statements on matters of fact, than those authors merit, who have only visited one settlement of New Holland, or still further, than those who, as regards personal observation, are entirely ignorant of that country.

LONDON:
January, 1843.

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CHAPTER I.

" In the soul
Are many lesser faculties, that serve
Reason as chief." MILTON.

IT has been charged against many authors of the present age, that they do not begin to study the subjects on which they write until their works are published. If such an imputation be true,—and there is no doubt, that many examples can be brought to prove that it has some foundation,—the writers on colonial affairs are certainly not free from the peculiarity.

It is impossible to find any subject which is less understood by the English people than that of the colonial empire of Great Britain; and

it is equally impossible to point out any one of the many litigated questions of which many of the writers on it are more profoundly ignorant. Schemes without end, are piled on one another, —all of which have their advocates; assertion on assertion is brought forward to prove that the theory which is sought to be exalted above its neighbours is the only correct one, and that its rivals are counterfeits.

From the descriptions given by the writers on New Holland, John Bull has been led to believe with a charming facility, that the new world was enjoying all the advantages of the golden age; that people of all descriptions, and amongst others, men of gentle blood, albeit, "*detrimentals*," were able to elevate themselves to a footing in worldly wealth with their more fortunate (because earlier born) brethren at home; and, at the same time, to enjoy a purely arcadian existence; that a man's wealth was computed, not as in the old country, by the possession of a certain quantity of a mineral dug from the bowels of the earth, but by owning a certain number of innocent animals; that

wealth was acquired not by means of noisy machinery, nor by precarious commerce, but simply by allowing the fulfilment of nature's first law, the propagation of the species; that in the great south land everything was changed for the better,—sulphurous fogs for a pure Italian sky, turmoil and trouble for peace and repose, disease for health, and poverty for riches.

To lead an arcadian life in a country in which there is no cold winter's blast, no snow, and where ice is a matter of history; to luxuriate in the finest climate in the world, and at the same time to amass a large fortune by the exercise only of common prudence; to enjoy the pleasures of continued summer, with only the short intermission when the rains fall, and to revel in the possession of almost perfect health, leaving all your previous diseases with "the fact proof stayers at home;"—these are some few of the inducements held out to persons to emigrate from England to New Holland.

Young persons of sanguine temperament, especially when they happen to have been

unsuccessful in their endeavours to obtain a comfortable livelihood at home, are the most likely to embark their all in one frail hazardous chance. The mere wish to see the world, as it is termed, —as if more knowledge of men and manners could not be obtained in Great Britain in one month than in the Australian bush in a hundred years,—and a knowledge of the large fortunes acquired by convicts, lead multitudes to rush blindly on to the fancied paradise. There is something of romance, too, and an appearance of courage in making the attempt, and it is thus by a union of exaggeration and imagination, that a number of persons voluntarily exile themselves, and, generally, for life; for if they have the wish, they rarely possess the means to return.

The spirit displayed by the writers on any of these colonies in upholding the particular settlement which they have taken under their fostering care, and in depreciating every other, is very remarkable. They are all, more or less, as far as my reading goes on the point,—and it has not been inextensive,—imbued with this

feeling. Misrepresentations,—to use no harsher word,—both direct and indirect, and of every conceivable variety, are indulged in: and, although each is loud in his denunciation of the fallacies sent forth by his opponents, he scruples not to endeavour to raise the colony which he has taken under his own especial protection by precisely the same means. So far has this system been carried, that men, whose situations should be a guarantee for their veracity, have not scrupled to send forth to the world very unfounded statements touching the colony in which they have been interested.

It must be admitted, that some persons misrepresent the capabilities of other colonies, and the excellence of their own, from ignorance. Nothing is more common than to hear men who have never visited any other Australian colony, clamorous in the praises of their own, and hazarding the statement that some particular tract of country is superior to any in New Holland. I have frequently found on investigation, that this over excellent piece of land, if not actually the property of the advocate, has

proved to be situated very near his possessions. It is true that every man has a right to be pleased with his own, but it is not just that any one should indulge this fancy, knowing nothing of the other portions of this vast island, in making statements which have the effect, whether intended or not, of causing others to emigrate to one colony in preference to any other. It may be urged in extenuation, that no one is obliged to remain, even after he has arrived at any particular settlement; and that if he does not like the appearance of the country, he can either return to Europe or go elsewhere;—this, however, will be found not to be the fact. Emigrants, for the most part, are persons of limited means, but of unlimited families, to whom the cost of even the outward voyage forms a great consideration.

The frequent desire of colonists to give glowing descriptions of the country in which they have cast their lot, and to gloss over the difficulties they have had to encounter, may arise from one of two motives, either the desire to represent their situation better than it is,

in order to dispel the doubts of those relatives and friends in Britain who were adverse to their projected exile, or to paint the country in brighter and better colours than it deserves, with the view of inducing others to follow their example, and thus to benefit the country by the influx of emigration.

It must be conceded that it is a hazardous experiment for a man shackled with a family to leave his means of livelihood in his own country, and to traverse half the globe to seek his fortune in another. Again, the loss of time during a four month's passage before he can locate himself, is to a man of small capital a source of most anxious consideration. To all it should be a matter of serious thought to recommend any large emigration; but for any to force on a hazardous experiment to further some particular scheme is utterly unjustifiable.

The real character of a settler's life in an Australian colony differs widely from the ideas entertained of it by intending emigrants; for it is an uninterrupted struggle against the average poverty of the soil, embittered by his

remote and very generally dismal location, far apart from any being at all connected with him, either by ties, feelings, or religion, and endangered by the ruthless violence of the dreaded savages, who are not restrained by any acknowledgment of the least prohibitory law.

It surely requires that the advantages to be set against these drawbacks, should not be few and uncertain, and difficult of attainment, but manifest, decided, and of such a nature as to be retained with security. Now, as the independence to be acquired by the settler is confessedly to arise from his wool, it will not be uninteresting to inquire, whether the prospects of this trade are as good as they have been represented; for the thousand and one articles which are found arranged in Australian books, as the exports—that are to be—are, to use an inadequate, rather than a harsh expression, distant and problematical. But although the climate of this country, deprived as it is of moisture, is well adapted, as well for the keep and increase of sheep, as for the im-

provement of the fleece; sheep-farming is, nevertheless, subjected to very considerable drawbacks, arising from diseases which ever and anon carry off large proportions of flocks—from poisonous herbs, which destroy great numbers—from the ravages of the native dogs, which are the more severe, as they kill a vast number more than they can by possibility devour—and from the devastating attacks of the denizens of the forest, whose food, the kangaroo, has been driven back by the sheep-farmer, and whose hunting-ground has been changed into a sheep-run.

One of the most serious considerations, with reference to emigration, is the all-but-impossibility of retraction, if unsuccessful; for, although convicts can manage to scrape together means to get home, a free person, if at all removed from the labouring population, will find it next to impossible, unless favourably circumstanced; however economically he may live, he will find the necessaries of life so excessively dear, as to place his saving a portion of his income quite out of the question. There

is something, too, of dislike to return, after having gone so far, and realized none of the anticipations which induced him to take so bold a step. These causes combined with the circumstance that the emigrant has invested in the colony what money he is possessed of, chain a very large proportion of people to these colonies. I have heard many an old settler who had grown grey in the colonies, and who had moreover thriven in wealth, say that he had remained not from any partiality to the place, but from the causes just now mentioned.

Leaving the consideration of the general question of emigration, it has been insisted by late writers on colonization, that the two principles of the concentration and the radiation of the settlers in any colony, must be rigidly enforced to enable them to thrive. All the evils which have happened in those colonies in which they have not been adhered to, have been traced to their omission. This is the key-stone of their position, and we are told that whenever these great principles are not abided by, the consequence will be much suffering and great loss.

There can be no doubt that when the soil of a country is generally fertile, and of such a nature as to be easily brought into a state of productiveness, the rivers navigable, and the roads good, it is advisable that there should be, to a certain extent, a concentration and radiation of the population. But in a country, the soil of which is generally deficient of fertility, the good land being only in patches; these principles, as they are called, of colonization, will be found wholly inapplicable. In old countries, concentration of the population may exist to a very large extent, *because* the communication between the dispersed agriculturists and the collected masses—the food growers and the food consumers—is so good that the produce can be readily conveyed, and at a slight expense, to that portion of the people who are not engaged in agriculture. In new countries, however, the case is widely different; the means of communication between each district, in fact, between different portions of the same district, are so bad, that produce can only be conveyed very tardily and at a very expensive rate.

The Australian colonies are the least adapted of any new countries to the concentration of large masses of people. The land is, for the most part, deficient of fertility, thereby rendering it impossible for the same amount of produce to be obtained from a given quantity of soil as in a generally fertile country, and from the prevalence of sand, the conveyance of agricultural produce will cost more than in those countries where the soil is firm.

The great object of settlers in a new country should be the producing food sufficient for their own consumption; for, however great the exports may become at some future period, the necessity of paying in specie for the produce which is brought to them from the older countries tends to weaken them in their most vulnerable point.

The first settlers of a colony,—the pioneers of civilization,—are rarely overburthened with worldly riches. After the early settlers have borne the first brunt, and brought the land into cultivation to a certain extent, the men of capital come out and purchase from the older settlers the results

of their industry; by these means both parties are benefitted,—the early settlers become possessed of capital, and the monied man of a residence and some land bearing crops. If, however, the earlier settlers, instead of following the prudent course of endeavouring to grow food sufficient for their own consumption, expend their time and money in other speculations, which may be highly advantageous to residents in an old colony, but totally inapplicable to the circumstances of a new one; the great probability, is, that they will have to pay more for the food which they are compelled to import, than will be defrayed by their speculations, however successful. When there is such a demand by the late settlers for the lands of the older colonists as to enable the latter to dispose of them to advantage, the draining of money from the colony to purchase food is not felt; but as soon as there is any falling off in the emigration to the place, then is experienced the absurdity of the principles on which they have acted.

As then it is evident that the early set-

tlers should, before they turn their attention to any other occupation, cultivate the land so as to render themselves independent of other countries for food; and that, when large masses of people are concentrated in any country, they cannot supply themselves with the necessaries of life, unless there is a large proportion of the population dispersed and engaged in agriculture, it is obvious that concentration will not answer in a new country. If the concentration of settlers in new countries generally be impolitic, how absurd must it be in New Holland, which is acknowledged, by the evidence of indisputable witnesses, to be generally deficient of fertility, — and yet it has actually been carried into effect. By the forcible concentration of the population, the settlers are compelled to waste their labour and capital in the cultivation of the inferior, or heavily-timbered lands.

Another great evil of the system is, that it fosters a jobbing in land. When people are dispersed, they take care to occupy the best land; but when they are concentrated on an

indifferent soil which bears produce only after an outlay of much time and money, they are very liable to sit themselves down, and await the increase in the price of the land, which will arise from the influx of other emigrants.

If the projectors of these principles had satisfied themselves with modifying former systems of colonisation, their views would have been much less liable to question; for it must be confessed that modifications might have been improvements. Not satisfied, however, with a modification of a theory that had stood the test of practical experience, they have promulgated new principles entirely opposite to all former modes. It is a lamentable circumstance, that persons who know nothing of the capabilities of Australia should consider themselves justified in bringing forward schemes altogether opposed to the plans of men who had acquired their knowledge of the subject in the country.

A theory may look well on paper, which may be found terribly deficient when it is brought to the unerring ordeal of practice, while the plan of the practical man being the result of a close

attention to minute detail, is much less liable to be impeded by unforeseen difficulties than the scheme of the mere theorist.

The projectors of the new principles, not contented with concentrating their unhappy followers, must radiate them also. Now, radiation on the sand and iron-stone of New Holland is a far different sort of thing to radiation on paper. In the one case, things progress in a smooth and pleasant manner: but, in the other, obstructions, which baffle the utmost exertions of the settler, are met with at every step. The grand radiation principle is inapplicable to the Australian wilderness. In truth, a settler there is too delighted at obtaining a patch of good land, not heavily timbered, to pay the slightest attention to his radiation.

In addition to concentration and radiation, another new principle has been started,—that of self-support. With respect to this *principle,* it is sufficient to observe, that it has been tried, and has signally failed. It is to be hoped, however, that its fate may do some good, that in its ashes some virtue may be found, and

that the colonisation theory manufacturers, *par. excellence*, may learn a little moderation.

A great deal has been written, much more has been said, on the importance of the discovery of the advantages which must result in preserving a balance between capital, land and labour. Praise has been showered on the discoverer of that which has been known and acted on from the earliest date of the successful employment of agriculture. It is known to the farmer of the most obtuse intellect, that if any one undertakes the management of an estate for which he has not sufficient capital, either to stock it, or to provide the requisite quantity of labour, he will, in all human probability, be a loser. The same principle applies to every mercantile speculation. If the means of the merchant are not adequate to his engagements—if he has entered on an undertaking too large for his capital—it is almost inevitable that it will be a losing one. Again, if labour is required to carry on the undertaking in which he has embarked, and he does not possess capital to

purchase that labour, the chances are that the speculation will fail.

It is by no means a matter of difficulty to show that when speculations, of whatever description, are begun without sufficient means, there is every probability of their being unsuccessful. It requires neither an expenditure of words, a subtlety of reasoning, nor a journey to the antipodes. The proof is before the eyes of every man. The living examples are at every man's door. It is evident, that when the capital is not equal to the land, when labour cannot be obtained, or when there is no money to purchase sufficient labour to bring the land into cultivation, a state of things exists, the end of which must be, considerable loss to the speculator.

It is clear that there must exist, and, moreover, that there must always have existed, in agricultural, as well as in all other pursuits which require the employment of money and work, a balance between the capital and the labour—and of course, in agriculture, the land also.

We will dismiss this part of the subject with

a quotation from La Bruèyre, to which we beg the attention of all intuitive colonial orators and writers. La Bruyère says, "C'est la profonde ignorance qui inspire le ton dogmatique. Celui qui ne sait rien croit enseigner aux autres ce qu'il vient d'apprendre lui-même; celui qui sait beaucoup, pense à peine que ce qu'il dit puisse être ignoré, et parle plus indifférement."

One memorable instance of the absurdities into which men may be led by ill-digested theories, exists in the South Australian scheme. The originators of this project, setting practical experience on one side, boldly ventured into a dubious and untrodden path. In spite of the experience of ages they reared their stupendous undertaking on the fragile basis of a loose and fallacious theory. They attempted to establish a kingdom which should support itself from the day of its birth; they endeavoured to concentrate large masses in the Australian wilderness; and even this they effected, owing to the credulity of the persons on whose fortunes and prospects they speculated. It would be difficult to produce an instance (in our day) of rashness

equal in disastrous results to that displayed by the promoters and managers of this scheme; for totally regardless of the means by which other colonies have risen into importance, they induced an exceedingly large number of persons to put their theories to the test of practice, at the imminent hazard of their future prospects.

The projectors of the new theory propounded their system of centralization, regardless of the manner in which the settlers of other districts of New Holland had been forced to disperse themselves, in order to procure subsistence for their stock. They designed magnificent squares and terraces on paper, but they neglected to point out the means by which the residents in them could obtain food. The project would have had a better and healthier appearance to practical men, if the managers had devised the means of feeding the inhabitants of their colony before they concentrated them. It would be considered an act of imbecility to erect a large town, even in Europe, without the food-supplying aid of agriculture: for although its inhabitants could undoubtedly be supplied with the

surplus produce of other districts, they would be under the necessity of paying a higher price for such produce than if it had been raised by themselves. Now, if it is contrary to common sense—unless under peculiar circumstances—to erect a large town in Europe without its being surrounded by an agricultural population, how much more absurd must it be to concentrate large masses in the dreary wilderness of New Holland, without having previously established the means by which those masses may be fed.

It is unfortunate for the facility of communication between "the city" and its port, that the site of the former was chosen on that bank of the line of pools—by courtesy, called a river—which is, the farthest removed from the shipping. Taking it for granted that the town should be built near the Torrens, it is evident, I apprehend, that it should have been placed as near the port as possible. If that bank of the Torrens which is nearest to the port had been chosen for the situation of the town, a much greater facility would—to say nothing of other advantages—have been afforded for the convey-

ance of goods. The advocates of the present site of the town of Adelaide may argue that it would only have decreased the distance for the transit of goods, by about two miles, but the outlay incurred in the transit of emigrants and their property, from the port to the town, would have been,—if applied to productive industry—highly advantageous to the resources of the colony.

In one of the works published with the view of causing emigration to South Australia, it is stated that when a large number of persons settle in a new colony they are more likely to be supplied with food from the neighbouring countries, than when the colony consists of only a small number. If this be correct, it follows that it is less likely for a large than a small population to starve, when inhabiting a country which is, for the time, unproductive. It is probable that there would be some difficulty in proving the truth of this theory to one of the first settlers in any country. It would be diffieult to convince him that, if there had been more emigrants at the first settlement, there

would have been less want. He would be apt to demur at the proposition which is here regarded as an undeniable fact, that the supply would necessarily equal the demand.

Persons who nourish peculiar notions on colonial affairs will do well to read and study Colonel Napier's review of the letter he received from the South Australian Commissioners, in reply to his demand for money and troops. They will do well to give especial attention to his observations on the fourth paragraph of the Commissioners' letter, containing the following remark:—"The most flourishing British colonies in North America were founded without pecuniary aid from the mother country, and without the aid of military force, though planted in the immediate neighbourhood of warlike Indian nations." Colonel Napier commences his observations by proving, that the reverse of the statement of the Commissioners was the fact, and he subverts their arguments with much ease.

Towards the termination of his "reply," the Colonel observes,—"Another colony, planted near Cape Hatteras, disappeared altogether, and

was never heard of more! Twenty-one years are now past since I landed, at the head of 900 British troops, on this very spot, near Cape Hatteras; and, from the nature of that coast, I can easily imagine that a colony might be there surprised and totally destroyed, either by enemies or sickness. Some of the Australian Commissioners were, probably, then at school, so I may take the liberty appertaining to grey hairs, and tell them that colonies, like camps, are exposed to many dangers, and, amongst others, those of *site*, which gentlemen, living always in London, are not exactly the people most fitted either to estimate or provide against."

Among the many inducements which were held out to lead persons to emigrate to Adelaide, was the cheering intelligence that sickness was almost unknown. So far, however, from this being the fact, it will be discovered, on a visit to the province, that, amongst other diseases, dysentery is by no means uncommon, the mortality being terrible when it affects young children. The strong muster of medical men proves that there is no lack of diseases.

It would be of essential service to the statistics of New Holland, were the officials of South Australia to furnish a return of the deaths since the settlement of the colony, indicating those of children, and those which were produced by suicide; and, with respect to the latter, noting the period when the different individuals arrived in the colony. A straightforward document of this description would be of more real value than all that has been said or written on the subject. It cannot be doubted that if the Adelaideans thought that such a return would have brought to their shores any number of persons, however small, it would have been prepared—for they have not omitted to enumerate any circumstance which could tend by possibility to make the province appear in a favourable light. It is not to be wondered at, that Adelaide is by no means a healthy place, when the very great change that occurs in the range of the thermometer, in the twenty-four hours, is considered.

CHAPTER II.

"When Nature rests,
Oft in her absence, mimic Fancy wakes
To imitate her."— MILTON.

A FEAR lest the increase of population should exceed that of food, has urged many persons, not imbued with the doctrines of Malthus, nor with "The Laws of Population" of some of his opponents, to further with every means in their power, the emigration of large numbers from their native soil. If proof were forthcoming that the entire surface of Great Britain was cultivated in such a manner that it was impossible for it to yield more produce,—then, and not till then, would their position be tenable. So far, however, from this being the fact, it has been proved, that there are millions of acres in that highly favoured country lying waste, which

merely require the expenditure of capital to open up virgin land of as fertile a description as can rarely be equalled; neither need the capitalist have any dread of his money, if invested judiciously, yielding a good per centage. Circumstances more conclusive on any point can scarcely be met with than are stated on this most interesting one before a Committee of the House of Commons; indeed, so decided are they, that unless they had been backed by high authority, they would scarcely be credited. Again, when the rapid strides to improvement which agriculture has made in the cultivated districts of the British Isles, are taken into consideration, and we seriously contemplate the increase of production which must inevitably follow the clearing fertile but waste land, and the introduction of the better description of agriculture into the badly cultivated, and the (at present) totally useless districts, it will be pretty clear that the disease is not of so serious a nature as it has been considered, and that a remedy which, in lessening a prospective evil, creates numerous others, cannot justifiably

be adopted, as it anticipates a danger which may only, by possibility, arise.

If removal were recommended to a country which possessed capabilities as great as the land from which the secession was made, and fewer disadvantages, then, indeed, would there be some reason in the endeavour to cause a considerable migration. An emigration to New Holland, however, is a withdrawal of the sinews of the state from the abundant-yielding land of Britain to the generally stubborn and sandy soil of Australia. We are told that the emigration of large masses is the "population safety-valve." It may be doubted whether a frequent, forcible, and indiscriminate thrusting open of the valve would not be as injurious in its effects as the bursting of the boiler. Would it not render the machine equally useless?

The writers on the evils of a superabundant population, have enlightened the world by the statement, that mankind increases not simply by addition, but by multiplication. It may tend to dispel the uneasiness caused by the fear of a want of food arising from the re-production of

the human species taking place in a geometrical ratio, to bring to mind, that the self-same law holds good, though much more extended in its operation, as applicable to all animal and vegetable life. All animals that are used for food breed earlier, oftener, and produce more at a birth than the human species; and the reproduction of the vegetable kingdom is even infinitely greater. Man is well repaid for the protection he affords to the animal and vegetable kingdoms, by their increased productiveness. In the three hundred and forty-first paragraph of Blumenbach's "Manual of Comparative Anatomy" (which will be found at page 348 of the excellent edition given to us by Mr. Coulson), we find the following sentences,—"The wild and domesticated races of the same species of animals differ very remarkably in their fertility. The domestic sow brings forth commonly two litters in the year, each of which consists, perhaps, of twenty young ones. The wild animal, on the contrary, becomes pregnant only once in the year, and the number of its young never exceeds ten. A similar difference

is found to obtain between the wild and tame cats; as also between the domestic dove and the wood pigeon." Everybody is aware of the immense increase which cultivation produces in the size and power of renewal of every vegetable.

So that, although man increases rapidly, his food is augmented in a much greater ratio. With such facts before us, we may indulge ourselves with the hope, that it will be long ere the fertile soil of our mother country will subject the children reared by her to hopeless starvation; and that those who believe that non-existence is the sure follower of an increase in population, are premature in their forebodings.

We are told that no one ought in fairness to object to any plan of systematic emigration in which force is not employed, and that the system which leaves it to the parties concerned to adopt the course they may judge the most beneficial, should receive the support of all well wishers of the struggling population of Great Britain. On a little consideration it will be pretty evident that the candour here displayed

is more apparent than real; that, although professing to advocate a system of "*voluntary*" emigration, the friends of colonisation set forward the advantages of secession from the mother country in such strong terms, and so forcibly contrast the starvation which must ensue to the British people if they remain at home, with the comfortable independence which they must acquire in the colonies, that it is to all intents and purposes as much involuntary as if they were torn from their homes by physical force.

Is it a voluntary or is it a forcible migration, which is brought about by assuring people who have no means of judging for themselves, and who are, therefore, obliged to receive the dicta of their (as they conceive) better informed neighbours, that unless they emigrate they must starve,—that if they remain in their native country they will be dependents on the bounty of the charitable, and their children will be still less able to provide themselves with the means of subsistence, and must suffer the most degrading penury,—that the means of passage is found to convey them from this hopeless wretchedness,

to a land where their misfortune will be their greatest assistance; in a word, that it is as much for their country's good as for the benefit of themselves and families that they should desert their native land in search of a home in a country that possesses every advantage which can be desired by the most exacting of mankind? When these statements,—worked up in such a variety of shapes as to suit the desires of every class,—are addressed to those who happen to be temporarily suffering from misfortune, and are substantiated by specious accounts (to use the mildest term) of the delightful nature of the new country, with unalloyed misery and starvation denounced against those who do not adopt the plan recommended, and a progressive increase of evils against their remotest progeny: —can it be said that the migration which takes place in consequence, is not "forcible?"

It is easy to comprehend the force of the motives which have, before now, exercised such power over the minds of certain classes, as to induce them to submit to all the privations of a new country, rather than endure in their native

land any restrictions in their modes of adoring their Creator, and of making themselves acceptable at the last ordeal. When the free exercise of religion is not permitted, — when the law orders that the First Great Cause is to be worshipped only according to an enjoined formula—it is no wonder that men should willingly undergo all the dangers of settling in a new country, rather than give up that which is more to them than life itself. The hardships which may be encountered in this preparatory existence, are as nothing compared to the risk of eternal perdition.

But, however powerful the motives of many of the English emigrants of former times may have been, in causing them to fly from their native land, in order to obtain that religious freedom elsewhere which was denied in their own country, such a reason for emigration does not now exist.

It is easy to understand in what manner the emigration of large numbers from an overpeopled country relieves that country, and, also, in what manner the benefits thus accruing are

felt by the whole population. But it is exceedingly difficult to comprehend how the emigration of large masses from a country contributes to the increase of its population. And yet it is one of the axioms of recent writers upon colonial affairs—that as emigration is one of the great elements of colonisation, emigration is the means of increasing the population of the mother country.

It is probable the impartial reader may be disposed to think that if this be the effect of emigration, the sooner it is stopped the better, as the remedy which renders the disease worse, instead of alleviating it, cannot be any other than a most uncouth preventive, and one more honoured in the breach than in the observance. It is difficult of belief that the increase of the home population should depend, not on the number of the people living in England, but on those who leave it.

One of the most striking cases I ever met with, of the offspring of a vivid imagination usurping the rightful position of simple reality, occurs in the writings of a gentleman holding

a high legal situation in one of the Australian colonies. Speaking of the birds of the district in which he resided, he says, "I have been favoured with two new songs from birds like thrushes; the notes are not much varied, but seem rather a repetition of something corresponding with these words, 'Come with me, and let us make a nest, ah *do*;' to which the other seems to reply, 'No, indeed I shan't, at least with *you*;' the last note accented."

The reader of this poetic dialogue would be little apt to imagine that the district in which it is stated to have occurred, is favoured with the presence of no bird whose note surpasses the chirp of the English sparrow; and that, instead of being indebted to the warbling throat of a feathered songster, he owes it entirely to the playful fancy of a legal functionary.

The people of England are apt to place reliance on the opinions given of the colonies by masters of vessels, under an impression that from their opportunities of seeing various countries, they consequently enjoy a capability of comparison not possessed by others. If

masters of vessels,—although possessing, as a body, no knowledge of agriculture,—went beyond the precincts of the port in which their ships are anchored, then their opinions might be of some moment; but when it is remembered, that merchant vessels do not now remain in harbour as they used formerly to do, it is clear that, with scarcely any exception, their judgments (such as they are) must be given on the appearance of the town, and not of the interior. If the master of a vessel finds the trade *to* the port is brisk, he, without further consideration, believes and reports that it is a thriving colony.

Encouraged by such reports, emigrants from Great Britain to New Holland, in addition to the improvements of their worldly wealth, confidently anticipate, that the chosen land will waft its perfume on the zephyr's breeze to welcome their approach to the "land of promise;" and they wait with impatience for the time when they can land on the shore on which they expect to breathe the air of Araby's scented groves. Nothing is then too extrava-

gant for their belief. Unshackled by dull reality, their ideas wander in the regions of romance, from whence it is natural to suppose, that none but pleasing and delightful images will be drawn. They persuade themselves that all the annoyances which had previously affected them, will vanish on their landing.

Little do they dream of the hardship, privation, and suffering which they are doomed to undergo! If their energies were crushed in their native land by the difficulties attending an up-hill course, how much more severely will they feel the stinging privations of a settler's life! For, however successful they may be, however wealthy they may become, at any future time, at the first outset they have to encounter difficulties, of which no resident in an old country can form an adequate idea.

Unsuccessful in business at home, the settler feels assured of becoming rich in the new country. He has been sickly in Europe; he has no doubt of enjoying uninterrupted health in the clear, salubrious, air of New Holland. The cold winds of his native land pierce through

his weakly frame; he feels, in anticipation, the mild zephyr fanning his cheek with its grateful, balmy breeze. His sickly soul revolts at the noisome smells of the o'er-crowded, pent-up, city; he inhales from afar the scented pathways and the citron groves of the fairy south.

The practice of exaggerating the capabilities of colonies is not, however, of yesterday's origin; for we find the following humorous allusion to it in one of the essays of the late Dr. Benjamin Franklin:—"In short, America is the land of labour, and by no means what the English call *Lubberland*, and the French *Pays de Cocagne*, where the streets are said to be paved with half peck loaves, the houses tiled with pancakes, and where the fowls fly about ready roasted, crying, '*Come, eat me.*'"

If America is not the *Pays de Cocagne*, Australia is not. If a man cannot live without hard work in America, he certainly cannot in New Holland. In the same essay, Franklin, after alluding to various misconceptions relative to the advantages obtained by emigration from Europe to America, adds,—"These are all wild

imaginations; and those who go to America with expectations founded upon them, will surely find themselves disappointed." And it should be borne in mind, that this was the deliberate opinion of a man well-informed on the question of emigration, and applied to the country, of which he was one of the staunchest supporters and most brilliant ornaments.

It is, at all times, an unpleasant duty to point public attention to the erroneous views of any writer, but it is doubly unpleasant to feel compelled to notice the errors of a gentleman of reputation in the scientific world. The very circumstance, however, which renders the task peculiarly disagreeable, occasions the necessity for its performance. Assertions which would be of slight consideration when uttered by a writer of small repute, become important when they are published by a person of note; and it is, therefore, clearly, the duty of every one who knows that the statements of a respectable author are erroneous, and who considers their tendency to be mischievous, to exhibit the shallowness of the grounds on which they are

based, and to endeavour to prove that their results will be proportionately disastrous.

From among many volumes of a similar tendency, I have selected one, the production of a member of a society which has for its object, the attainment of a knowledge of the soil: the work referred to, is entitled, "The Colony of Western Australia," by Mr. Nathaniel Ogle, F.G.S., &c., &c.

Mr. Ogle resembles his compeers in considering himself bound to attack the English government on the systems which have been adopted in the formation of colonies, and in setting forward a plan of his own for the guidance of all governments, present and to come. He asserts, in his preface, that "the colonial department of the English government, has had neither system nor principles in the settlement of new colonies;" but he has not informed his readers how a colony could possibly be formed without some system.

The following passages appear to demand some attention:—"Taking into consideration the climate, extent, and position, it may be

looked on as being among the finest portions of the habitable world, now given by Providence, a free gift to those who find the old world too difficult an arena in which to encounter the vicissitudes of life; or to those who, actuated by a high and noble impulse, avail themselves of the offer of their Creator to go forth and possess themselves of this smiling land, and there to increase and multiply, and enjoy the fruits of their industry."—"Be not slothful to go and possess the land. When ye go, ye shall come into a large land,—a place where there is no want of anything that is in all the earth;" the last extract being the heading of his first chapter. The objects of the writer are evidently two-fold; first, to show that Australia may be considered a most promising land for the emigrant; and, secondly, to induce people to leave their own country in order to possess it.

The assertion, that the country is among the finest portions of the habitable world, will be sufficiently met by a short extract from the speech made by Governor Hutt, in September, 1840, at Fremantle,—"He thought he saw a

bright day about to dawn upon Australia; the exertions of the colonists had gone far to improve the *stubborn* nature of the soil;" and, according to Sir James Stirling, the late governor, whom Mr. Ogle designates "that accurate observer," "this dispersion of the settlers, has been further increased by the nature of the country in respect of its general inferiority of soil or the absence of water in certain localities," and the statement that the country is now *given* by Providence, a free gift, to those, &c., is clearly opposed to the fact that no portion of it can be obtained by a settler without the actual payment of money. Had the land been uninhabited, the case would, however, have been materially altered.

In the tenth page it is observed: "If the voyage has been prudently commenced towards the winter, there is a probability of its being continued without even *one day of storm;* (Credat Judeus) the fresh and grateful breezes carrying the vessel forward, while health and buoyancy of spirits gradually pervade the minds

of the emigrants, and prepare them for the new and useful labours they have undertaken. Lieutenant Breton tells us that he has made two voyages, his friend four, 'without experiencing any thing approaching to a storm; indeed, the sea was so smooth the whole way, that he had some difficulty to persuade himself that they were not under the lee of the land.' "

The author of this passage surely cannot have read of the anxious wave-tossed mariner,

> " For many a day, and many a dreadful night,
> Incessant labouring round the stormy Cape."

If he had been buffetted about either in the channel—especially " towards the winter,"—in the Bay of Biscay, or off the Cape, half as much as it has occurred to me to have been, he would scarcely have made so bold an assertion, —for he would have come to the conclusion that there is a very little probability, indeed, of the voyage being made without a day of storm; and instead of finding it difficult to persuade himself that he was not under the lee of the land, he would have had the greatest possible difficulty to persuade himself that he

was any where than on the wild and turbulent ocean.

Again, at page 18: "his (the emigrant's) heart beats with gratitude to that 'God who bringeth thee unto a good land; a land of wheat and barley, of vines and fig-trees and pomegranates; a land of oil, olives, and honey where thou shalt eat bread without scarceness: thou shalt not lack any thing in it.'" If we contrast the above with the account given of its character by the occupiers of the land,—and they are not the people to depreciate it,—it will not lead us to think a jot more favourably of Mr. Ogle's accuracy of description. In the report on the statistics of Western Australia in 1840, with observations by the Colonial Committee of Correspondence, there is this sentence: "The general character of Australia, including *all its settlements*, is that of an open, grassy, *poor* country, with a fine climate and dry soil, and admirably adapted for sheep pastures; but, under ordinary circumstances, it is not calculated to bear a dense population, owing to such general DEFICIENCY OF FERTILITY in

the land, as would make a very extensive production of corn unprofitable, although a *limited* quantity of rich soil exists, on which its growth is lucrative."

In page 29, the following passage occurs, in reference to the climate:—"In winter and wet weather, a fire is a luxury in the evening, but not indispensable." This opinion, however, would be speedily removed by the experience of a bleak south-wester, in this "*smiling*" land.

Mr. Ogle settles the difficult question of the civilization of the aborigines by stating, "It would be well to induce a few on each estate, to materially assist in the cultivation of a field, and then let them reap it, and take the produce in equal proportions. The grinding and preparation might be shown to them, and let them thus become acquainted with that art which would be certainly most palatable to them. Having once tasted of the fruits of their industry, it would lead to more stationary habits." Can the writer of the above extract be aware that, if it were possible to do that which he enjoins, the aborigines would have made a great

advance towards civilized habits? The difficulty does not consist in not knowing what is to be done, but in devising the means of doing it; and it has been attempted by many good men without success.

Mr. Ogle says that the flesh of the kangaroo is superior to venison; and, in page 64, he informs his readers, that the aborigines have a mode of cooking a kangaroo-steak which is so excellent, that it invariably melts with tenderness. After this statement, he demands "Who, after such proofs of their superior taste in gastronomy, will pronounce them an inferior race?" It has happened to me to eat the flesh of the kangaroo when cooked by various artists, in many different ways; I have had steaks and cutlets of it, I have taken kangaroo-soup, which, by the bye, is very good when well made, and I have eaten it roasted, and it always occurred to me that it was very inferior indeed to venison. The cutlets appeared the best, but the excellence of them depends much more on the goodness of the cook than on the flavour of the meat. The idea that the aborigines, with

whom he acknowledges, in page 237, the blubber of the whale is a delicacy, are in the habit of cooking so as to tempt the palate of a white man, is certainly most startling.

At page 93, it is stated that, "the weather in summer is dry and hot, but not oppressing or exhausting," whereas, in those days of summer in which the heated atmosphere is not relieved by the refreshing sea breeze, or in the morning before the sea breeze has set in, the heat is most exhausting. A favourite authority of Mr. Ogle's (Mr. G. F. Moore) says in page 143, of Martin Doyle's extracts, from his letters and journals, "I left Perth on Saturday, and went to Guildford: the heat most oppressive;" and so severely is it occasionally felt, that persons who have resided in Sierra Leone, affirm that they never experienced more inconvenience from the heat there, than they have done on some days in the Swan River Settlement

At page 75, "It may be truly said, that the administration of the laws is on a healthier system of practice than it is in England, and, consequently, that in the great essential of civil

protection, it affords facilities and safety, to which the iniquitous practice of England cannot pretend." This statement is distinctly contradicted by the fact that criminals have escaped scathless from the administration of the law in Swan River, who, in England, would have been subjected to condign punishment, and that high government officials, whilst administering the laws on this *healthy* system of practice, have been subjected to intimidation, of which the following instance affords a proof:—The commander of an *American merchant vessel* having flogged a British subject on board his ship, intimidated the government resident by threats of vengeance if he were committed to prison; on which a *compromise was effected*. The testimony of the present governor of the colony, and of Mr. Burgess, one of the most respectable settlers, will tend somewhat to dispel the illusion as to the extent of civil protection afforded by the law in the colony of Western Australia. In a speech made by Governor Hutt to the legislative council on the 14th of October, 1839, in which he advocated the

raising a police force for Western Australia, he said, " The same gentleman whose shepherd boy has been recently murdered, and his flock of sheep at the same time plundered, has lost, since the year 1833, stock, principally consisting of sheep and goats, with some horses, which, if left undisturbed, would, at the regular common rate of increase, be worth now, on the lowest computation, upwards of £4,000;" and we find the following sentence in a letter written by Mr. W. Burgess to the *Perth Gazette*, which appeared in that journal in January, 1838, relative to the conduct of the settlers towards the natives:—" Such was the terror of the time, that shepherds would not go out with the flocks except under the immediate protection of a soldier; nor would the labourer go to his work except another person stood by him with a loaded firelock."

It is hoped the few instances selected will be sufficient to prove how inaccurate a view, writers on colonial affairs, give of the subject on which they treat. If a gentleman of Mr. Ogle's rank in the scientific world has allowed

his imagination to usurp the place of sober judgment, it cannot be expected that greater accuracy of description will be found in the volumes of those authors who do not enjoy the same reputation. If I were not satisfied that no reasonable doubt could possibly exist on this head, I should feel it incumbent on me, even at the risk of appearing tedious, to point out the glaring errors that have found their way into print. But being convinced that it will be manifest that inaccuracies, greater even than those which have been the subject of examination in the work published by Mr. Ogle, must be committed by those persons who do not possess the standing of that gentleman, I consider the bringing forward any further proof of the truth of my position would be a work of supererogation.

A great deal of the misconception that has arisen, with respect to New Holland, would never have occurred but for its immense distance from Great Britain.* People are too

* Many an object appears beautiful when seen at a distance, and through a mist; but when the fog has dispersed, and the person has approached it, he smiles at the deception.—*Ward on the Hindoos, Introd. p.* xcix.

much in the habit of receiving, as realities, the descriptions which romantic writers give of a country so far distant, and the degree of credence which should attach to them is not weighed with the same degree of care as if they referred to a neighbouring country.

I cannot refrain from quoting on this point a passage in the diary kept by Sir Walter Scott, being an extract from his entry of the 8th of April:—"Ah, that *distance!* What a magician for conjuring up scenes of joy or sorrow, smoothing all asperities, reconciling all incongruities, veiling all absurdities, softening every coarseness, doubling every effect by the influence of the imagination."

No language can depict the extent of misery which the English agricultural emigrant feels on landing in these colonies. His hopes are shipwrecked; he discovers,—but, alas! when too late,—that the country to which he has exiled himself, and for which he has left his native land, is as deficient of general fertility as his own country is remarkable for it; he finds that, for the rich valleys and limpid streams of

old England,—where, if a farm labourer does not receive so much wages as in New Holland, he enjoys many more comforts, the necessaries of life can be obtained at a much more reasonable rate, and his life and property are more secure,—he has to take in exchange the dry water-courses and the sandy wilderness of Australia. He feels as an outcast: in sickness or in sorrow, his sufferings are not relieved by the kind attentions of any familiar faces to administer consolation to his wounded spirit.

The distant settler, living in the midst of rude, uncivilised, and barbarous tribes, sighs in vain for the quiet, peaceful comforts (restricted though they might be) of his former home. Heavy forebodings come across his drooping mind when the recollection of the flowery meadows, the shady groves, and rich valleys of Britain force themselves upon him, and then how insignificant do those inconveniences appear, which first led him to seek abundance and happiness in exile.

My heart has bled on witnessing the utter wretchedness of some poor emigrants, who have ruined themselves by giving too ready an ear to

plausible representations of happiness to be attained by emigration. The misery of those pitiable exiles who have neither the physical conformation nor the habits of men adapted to fight their way in a new country is, indeed, complete; and their sorrowful countenances are the true indices of their disappointed expectations.

Never will be obliterated from my mind the recollection of the calamitous appearance of a fellow passenger after he had landed on the shore for which he had been sighing for many months. During the voyage, his countenance was that of a hale, hearty man,—after the lapse of only one week, his appearance was miserable in the extreme, his countenance squalid, and it was evident the poor fellow was thoroughly heart-broken; his expectations had received a sudden check, and those dreams in which he had so long indulged were at once and rudely dissolved by the unsoftened reality.

No misery in an old country can be so complete as in a new colony; for to all the wretchedness which may be felt where the

population consists of a civilised and a Christian people, are to be superadded all the woful feelings consequent on being landed amongst savage tribes, with no shelter from the burning sun or the sluicing rains; the means of subsistence being extremely precarious, with the greatest uncertainty as to the fate of himself and of those whom he may have brought with him, more dear to him than his own existence, and separated by thousands of miles from those who would render him assistance in his overwhelming difficulties.

CHAPTER III.

"His heart
Is pitiless and hard; his arm is strong
To waste, to murder, and his flashing eye
Is tearless." CARRINGTON.

THE aborigines of New Holland form a variety in the Malay division of the human race. They are nomadic, having no settled place of abode. Their skin is of a dark copper-colour; the palms of the hands and soles of the feet of a brownish pink; their hair long, and generally black; the bones of the face large and prominent; the nose full, and broad at the point; mouth large; lips thick and prominent; the breasts, arms, and back are covered with raised scars or cicatrices, and they disfigure their bodies with a mixture of red earth and grease. They use a partial covering of kangaroo-skin;

and they twist the hair of the opossum into a kind of twine, which they wear as a girdle round their loins. They have a plurality of wives, and acknowledge the authority of leaders or chiefs in only a very limited degree, many tribes living in a state of pure democracy.

Their huts, small in size, and of a rude construction, are made by throwing the bark of trees, commonly the tea-tree, over branches, and those of each tribe are generally placed near together; they consume their food when only warmed through, the blubber of the whale being considered a delicacy; and, prior to the settlement of the English in their country, they appear to have possessed no means of warming liquids. Their weapons are the spear and stick with which it is thrown, the boomerang or kylie, the waddie, or nullah-nullah, a short stick much resembling a small crow-bar in shape, and made of heavy wood, and the hammer, which, amongst other uses, is employed by them to knock off pieces of bark, to form holding places for their toes when they ascend large trees. Some tribes use a small shield of an oval form,

to parry spears thrown at them. The tribes differ very much in appearance, in disposition, and in customs; and some—although on a par with their neighbours in personal courage—yield much more readily than others to the British domination.

As obtains in all cases in which different bodies of men act together, some of the tribes are much more warlike than others, and they keep the surrounding tribes in constant apprehension by their frequent aggressions. Those on the eastern coast have bark canoes of a primitive make, to enable them to cross their unfordable rivers—whilst they are not seen on the western coast, where the rivers are fordable in certain places.

They are quick of resentment, and take a full revenge for any affront or injury, waiting for months, a safe opportunity to carry out their malignant desires. They are exceedingly treacherous, and betray their nearest relatives for the smallest remuneration; and, with few exceptions, appear destitute of the feeling of gratitude, however great the services rendered.

They appear to have vague ideas of a Superior Being, and of a future state; and they attach much importance to lofty stature, a tall man receiving great consideration among them.

They have a great dread of supernatural spirits when in the dark, and as a protection at night, always carry with them a piece of lighted wood. They take great care of the dead, and the rites for them are very peculiar, being a sort of "wake;" on such occasions, the women lacerate their noses with their finger nails until they bleed. As a sign of mourning, some discolour their bodies, and especially the face. They believe that the spirit of a dead native roams about troubled and uneasy until some one of another tribe is killed to appease his "manes." If the death has been occasioned by spearing, then a relative of the person who threw the spear is selected as the victim of their vengeance. A custom exists in some tribes of kindling a fire every evening, for the spirit of the departed to warm itself by, which is continued until a life is taken on his account, when the spirit is believed to be at rest.

When the English first arrived in their country they took, indiscriminately, the lives of English or natives to appease the spirits of their deceased friends; but finding that an Englishman could not be speared without severe retribution, they gradually discontinued the practice, and satisfied themselves with spearing natives. Amongst some tribes, the widows pass over to the eldest brother; so that it sometimes happens, when there is a large family, and there has been a great mortality among them, that the eldest surviving brother has many wives.

They are very keen sportsmen, and have a great dread of all good shots. Nothing, perhaps, surprises a fresh arrival more than the ability of the natives in tracking. White men, who have lived long in the bush, and who have been compelled to rely for subsistence on shooting or hunting, become moderately expert in tracking, but they fall far short of the natives. They are exceedingly cunning, and very soon perceive the object of any questions addressed to them, and they always endeavour, without any attention to truth, to give such answers as

will be agreeable. For instance,—if a settler, desiring wet weather to bring up his crops, ask a native if he thinks it will rain to-morrow, he would reply, "plenty rain. come down by-and-bye;" on the contrary, a person indicating a desire for fine weather, and asking a native if rain might be expected, would be certainly answered in the negative. They are also good mimics, and render themselves occasionally very amusing.

The natives suffer much from severe pains in the head, which they relieve by taking blood,—in a primitive manner,—from the temples. They have a habit of shampooing, which is called booleing, in some districts; they hold this operation in great esteem for removing rheumatism of the head, for which they also apply a plaister made by burning certain herbs, to the parts affected. The aborigines rapidly recover from the effects of wounds which would be dangerous to Europeans. Some of them,—generally old men,—affect to possess a knowledge of physic, and are called doctors. They consider that a blow across the face is likely to

kill, believing it to be a vital part; during child-birth, the women rend the air with hideous shouts.

It is interesting to witness the meeting of two natives in the bush, as they approach with extreme caution, always prepared to resist an attack. In their skirmishes, which are frequent, they are excited in the highest degree, making a most astounding din,—chattering, jumping, and running; and the women in this, as in every other case where noise is a desideratum, assist their liege lords with their clamorous tongues. The old hags of the tribe shuffle about in a sort of dance, uttering sounds in something of a chaunting tone, repeating the names of the persons their opponents had speared, and inciting the men to the encounter. These skirmishes, however, in which there is much more noise than mischief, terminate generally in an amicable manner, by the men of both tribes chivalrously agreeing to spear a woman in the leg. The poor victim selected for this purpose, is obliged to submit, and a spear is thrust through some portion of the muscular

substance of the leg, so as not to inflict any permanent injury.

Although cannibalism is not believed to prevail to any extent, proof has been adduced that it does exist to a certain degree. Each tribe accuses some other of the practice, disclaiming it themselves; but there are other practices amongst the aborigines almost (if not to the full) as odious to the ideas of an Englishman as cannibalism.

The native boys begin to throw the spear at an early age, and when very young, they commence their practice with small rushes. They never could acquire so much skill in projecting spears if they did not accustom themselves to the habit from a very early period; and unless they kept up their proficiency by constant use: but yet they are, by no means, so expert as is generally supposed. A white man is apt to be amazed the first time he sees a native casting a spear, in consequence of the line which it takes almost parallel to the ground; but white men can easily acquire this power by a little practice. The natives have no certainty with their spears,

unless when very near their object; and when they aim at anything which is at a reasonable distance from them, they often go very wide of the mark.

But to the native, dexterity in the use of his weapon is of the utmost value in the desolate wilderness, in which the white man sees but arid sand, and stunted scrub, destitute alike of water and of protection from the scorching rays of the burning sun; yet it is the loved birth place of the native, who knows every rising ground and every spring: here he roams the lord of the creation, with all he,—the child of the desert,—requires about him, surrounded by the playful and bounding kangaroo; and here the vaunting European, with all his knowledge,—as helpless in the bush as he is powerful amid the resources he has collected around him,—would perish but for the guidance of the despised native. The home of the native, dreary and full of risk as it is to us, is as free from danger, and as fondly beloved by him as the home of his childhood is by the white man. Amongst the settlements of the Europeans, the aboriginal

native is endured, but it is seldom that his presence is desired; he lingers about, scoffed at by those who hold by the right of might that soil which reared him and his fathers. In the bush how altered is he,—how free are all his motions,—how elastic his step,—how changed from the abject crouching form that loiters around the white man's dwelling!

It is a circumstance worthy of observation, that so little is known—considering the long period that has elapsed since the settlement of large numbers of our countrymen in New Holland—of the rules of conduct of the aborigines towards each other; in fact, of their domestic manners. Persons, the best informed respecting them, are frequently at fault on some point of their conduct which is inexplicable. There can be but little doubt, I think, that they are always under some kind of restraint, even in the bush, when a white man is amongst them for a short period. Whether, indeed, they have any rules of action, or whether they are guided at all times by impulse, is uncertain. As far as I am informed, every white person who has lived

any considerable time in the bush with the natives—and there are many such—has shewn a great disinclination to speak of the habits of the natives when completely "at home;" they parry questions, and evade direct answers. One remarkable instance of this description came under my notice. It was the case of a white man who lived for so long a time with the aborigines as entirely to forget his native language, and, being a tall and powerful man, possessed great authority among them. It was impossible to obtain any information from him respecting the habits of the tribes in which he had lived. It may be that their habits are of so barbarous and revolting a description as to render any white man, who has participated, averse to speak of them.

There are two opinions, diametrically opposite to each other, respecting the character of the aboriginal population. These opinions demand attentive consideration, as on them depends the justice, or otherwise, of the manner in which the natives are treated. One class of settlers, which, I am sorry to be obliged to confess, I

believe to be a numerous one, maintain that the aborigines of New Holland are not entitled to be looked on as fellow-creatures; and, in consequence, adopt the harshest and most severe measures towards them. There are persons in these colonies, in what are considered respectable stations in society, who have the hardihood to defend the savage butcheries that have been committed by the whites on the natives, by asserting that they resemble so many wild beasts, and that it is proper to destroy them accordingly. In many of the affrays between them, the whites would appear to have taken on themselves the savage disposition and ferocity of their opponents. They have struck with relentless cruelty,—their retaliations have been frightful,—tribe after tribe has been annihilated; in the same slaughter they have included the old and the helpless, the mother and her child. Some have even dared to go so far in their attempts at a justification, as to add the guilt of impiety, and have said that it was the will of Providence that the black should recede from before the white man. The Americans, indeed,

dispose of the subject with much nonchalance, and assert that the Indian claims must be *extinguished*; but, assuredly, much would it take from the disgrace and shame of the white man if the relation of his proceedings towards the ignorant black, were blotted for ever from the page of history.

Others there are, who, deeply impressed with a sense of the sufferings which have accrued to the aboriginal inhabitants in consequence of the pressure of the European, view with horror the inroad made into the possesions of the natives, the destruction and driving back of their staple commodity of life—the kangaroo, and the forcing the unfortunate aborigines, ignorant of all forms, to submit to the "protection?" of the British laws, to be punished by a code—the nature and language of which they are incapable of comprehending, and made and administered by a people through whom they have endured much injury.

This opinion is held, for the most part, by philanthropic individuals at home, who believe the aborigines to be ignorant but innocent; and

who blame the settlers for every collision that has occurred between them and the natives. As not unfrequently obtains, when opinions are so much at variance, it will, I think, be found that the medium between them is nearer the truth than either of the extremes. Taking it for granted that the British government has a right to plant colonies in this immense country,—it is more than can be expected from human nature, that the English who have gone out to settle under the auspices of their government should submit to be speared by the aborigines with impunity.

But it must be urged, on the other hand, that although, amongst Englishmen, the authority of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain is supreme, yet the aborigines of New Holland care not for its edicts; and even if they were able to comprehend the laws, it is very questionable whether they—the denizens of the forest, acknowledging no law but their own will,—would consent to be bound by the decision of such a tribunal.

Under such circumstances, it is impossible, I apprehend, to prevent collisions. If Englishmen

settle in New Holland, they must have flocks and herds; and if, by their introduction, they occupy the native hunting grounds, and drive back the timid kangaroo, the aborigines will subsist on sheep.

It may be asked by people at home, who have invested money in these colonies, why not oblige the natives to retire into the interior, where they will be unmolested by the whites, and where the food must be abundant? The conclusive answer may be given, that it is impossible: each tribe has its "ground," and any attempt to pass beyond it to subsist on that of another, would be opposed by a war of extermination. Hence, it follows, that the natives must remain where they are found by the Europeans, or commence a warfare by an act of aggression, which must terminate in their destruction or in that of their opponent.

It may further be urged, that it is the duty of the white people to maintain the natives, on whose grounds they settle. There can be little doubt of the disposition of the settlers generally to subsist the aborigines, who held undisputed

possession of the land prior to their arrival, provided they could get work done in return. To continuous labour, however, the natives of New Holland are as averse as all other savages; and few settlers are able to spare from their scanty stores, sufficient to support the natives without work.

It has been argued that the natives of New Holland are the lowest in the scale of human nature, and have been benefitted by the settling of Europeans in their territory, as from them they have derived the advantages of civilization, and have had delivered to them the blessed Light of the Gospel; this opinion has become pretty general from the circumstance that attempts to impart to them anything in the shape of civilization have signally failed. They pine for the wild freedom of the bush, and gladly leave behind them the commodious dwellings of the white man to return to their native huts. The effect which confinement has on them is really amazing, producing serious illnesses, and sometimes death.

It is deeply to be lamented that the outskirts

of civilization are occupied by a class of persons ill adapted to succeed in teaching their barbarous neighbours the christian virtues of civilized life, and to prevent their indulging in its vices,—ignorant as they are of the former, and adepts as they are in every conceivable shade and variety of the latter. But although the aborigines have laboured under the disadvantage of having had such indifferent instructors, it may be doubted whether any better result would have occurred, providing the persons with whom they first came in contact, had been well fitted to point out by their precepts and example, the blessings of christianity and civilization.

As might be inferred, from the ill success of the attempts to civilize in any degree the aborigines of this country; the propagation of the christian faith amongst them, has been met by an obstacle which has proved insurmountable. Many teachers have succeeded after great efforts, in causing the children of natives to repeat certain words and sentences, but although able to pronounce words, they cannot understand their meaning unless they are material, when the

memory of the substances for which the words stand, is retained by them. The ostentatious splendour of the Romish church, has more charms for a rude, uncivilized people, than the plain, iconoclastic simplicity of the Protestant form of worship. The Australian aborigines are incapable of comprehending the great truths of revealed religion, and I cannot but consider it a mockery as useless as it is irreverent, to make them utter—in that miserable idiom which serves as the means of communication between the aborigines and Europeans—the christian's belief in the hope of his salvation through the means of his Redeemer. But yet let me not be considered as in any way reflecting on the motives of those indefatigable and good men who have given themselves up to the work of the Mission.

It can scarcely be doubted that the single-minded missionaries, strong in their desire to do good, and zealous in the discharge of their highly important functions, frequently entertain the belief, that the completion of the labours continued so long and under so many privations,

has been attained, when in reality they have made little or no progress towards the desired end. Missionaries of the present day would do well to be guided by the conscientious scruples of "the Apostle of the Indians," Eliot, the New England missionary. If they were to follow in the footsteps of that memorable civilizer and converter of the heathen, they would be less likely to deceive themselves, and to mislead others. Year upon year of uninterrupted and persevering exertion must pass over, before it can be expected that the Aborigines can advance towards a perception of the blessings of civilization. And until this desirable consummation has been effected, it is worse than useless to teach them to repeat words—the meaning of which they cannot comprehend.

It has been argued, that the taking possession of a part of the land which is occupied by "a few hunting tribes" of natives for the purpose of cultivation, is attended with the least possible injury to the aborigines; and it has been said, that the case is much altered when the natives are partly civilized, live in domestic societies,

have settled habitations, and either cultivate the land or feed their flocks upon it. So far, however, from this holding good, it is easy to show that the reverse is the fact. When the land occupied by a number of partially civilised aborigines is taken possession of, the aborigines will either remain in their former positions, and become dependents, or they will remove to some other quarter to lead the same lives which they had done prior to the advent of the strangers into their territory.

But in the event of the land being occupied by "a few hunting tribes," the case is wholly altered. Aborigines, who are in ignorance of all the arts of civilised life, require a much larger portion of land to provide them with the means of subsistence than is needed by the same number of partially civilised natives, and a very much larger quantity than is requisite for the same purpose by an equal number of highly civilised Europeans. Respecting the injury said to be inflicted on the partially civilised natives who had been in the habit of feeding their flocks on the land which is taken from

them by their more powerful opponents, and which is not felt by those aborigines who happen to be less civilised,—it is clear that it is a distinction without a difference; for the hunting tribes have their flocks just as much as their more civilised neighbours,—flocks from which they derive the means of supporting life, and which are as much their property as the pent-up animals in the sheep-fold of the white man are his; and it is clear that the cultivation, that is the breaking up of the land, will disturb the wild animals, the feræ naturæ,—the flocks of the hunting uncivilised man, to a much greater extent than it will the flocks which the partly civilised man feeds on the land occupied by him.

A great stress has been laid on the plan of buying the land from the aborigines who occupy it. It has been said, the purchase of land from the natives cannot but be a just measure, when they are willing to part with their land by amicable arrangements; and this specious system of purchasing the land has been practised to a large extent in various parts of the world.

A man may be very superficially read in the political history of Europe, and yet know that a bargain which is entered into by two nations, and by each of them with *apparently* the greatest good faith, is not unfrequently broken by each of the contracting parties—that, in point of fact, the stipulations of that bargain are never fulfilled on either side, because the bargain was made only to serve as a screen to the actual intentions. Should the articles of the contract prove advantageous to both parties, it is probable that they may be faithfully performed. But when either party conceives that it receives no advantage from the bargain, or that the benefit derived from it is more than counterbalanced by the improved prospects of the other, ingenuity is apt to discern that the real signification of some of the stipulations is very different to the sense in which they would be regarded by a party unbiassed by the influence of self-interest.

If, then, the bargains of European nations are not, at all times fulfilled, no surprise can be felt that mutual recriminations should occur when a

bargain is made by a mighty European power with a few "hunting tribes," when the articles of that bargain transfer the soil, on which the aborigines have lived from time immemorial, from them, to the all-retentive grasp of an ambitious people. Taking for granted that the natives, with whom the purchase is effected, are enabled to comprehend the meaning of the bargain—which, by the bye, requires the employment of no little imagination—it is not possible that they can understand the consequences of that measure. Europeans may call their purchase of the land from the natives of the country in which they desire to form a colony, by the plausible name of bargain,—it has frequently been no other than a deceit, or sale from intimidation. But let not the British people adopt the unworthy art of dissimulation in their first transactions with the ignorant savages to whom they affect to teach the doctrines of Christianity. They have the power to enforce compliance, and have, therefore, no excuse for resorting to the mean expedient of *deceitful trickery*.

It is worthy of observation that the evils necessarily attendant on the system of colonisation pursued by the English, have been aggravated by the faults of those who formed a large portion of the early emigrants to New Holland. When a great proportion of the first settlers of a country were transported to that country as a punishment for the crimes committed by them in their native land, and continued in bondage when they arrived in the land selected as the place of their banishment, it could not but happen that these parties should retort the attacks of the natives in a spirit directly opposed to that with which an all-enduring Christian would tolerate any assault on his life or property.

It must not be forgotten, while we are meditating on the treatment of the natives of New Holland, that their country is occupied by force—that they attempted, but in vain, to beat off the English settlers. However much this question may be mystified, it is evident that New Holland is only held by the right of might. Therefore, it is not justifiable to assert that all

the evils which have been brought on the aborigines by the settlement of the whites in their country, have arisen from the inherent depravity of their natures; for they took their origin from the system which has been pursued in regard to colonies, aggravated, however, there can be no doubt, by the description of persons who formed a large—and almost the only *working*—population among the early settlers in the oldest of these colonies.

CHAPTER IV.

" We have many a mountain path to tread,
And many a varied shore to sail along
By pensive sadness (not by fiction) led—"

New Holland is strikingly deficient of large navigable rivers. When the immense extent of coast that has been surveyed is compared with the same space in any other country, it becomes manifest that in this most essential point New Holland is sadly below the average. The evil is aggravated by a great deficiency of tributary streams, and according to Captain Sturt, in a course of three hundred and forty miles, the Morumbidgee is not joined by one stream of running water. Although the advantage of large navigable rivers, ramifying by innumerable tributary streams through every district of a country, thus forming cheap and

easy channels of communication, and affording the greatest facility to the transit of all descriptions of imported and exportable articles, of whatever weight of bulk, is sufficiently appreciated in all parts of the world; still the benefit derived in an old country, having good roads, and situated in the temperate zone is not to be compared with the advantages which are conferred on a country, where the population is scattered, the roads very indifferent, the temperature high, and which suffers severely from droughts of a highly destructive character. The main streams of the large rivers found in any other division of the world would not be more serviceable to the commerce and communication of New Holland, than would the numberless rivulets which serve as feeders to the principal trunks, be advantageous to its agriculture, as by them the irrigation of the lands would be rendered easy, and the employment of much expensive labour saved.

Well may the natives of Egypt view with veneration the Nile that brings fertility and happiness with its copious stream! And well

may the Hindoo regard as sacred, the point of junction of the Ganges, the Jumna, and the Sereswati! What advantages to its commerce and its agriculture might not be confidently anticipated, if New Holland possessed rivers like the Amazon or Mississippi? Explorations of the interior, which are now so hazardous and expensive, would then be attended with little risk, and would require only an outlay sufficient to cover the cost of the boats necessary to be employed. Thus, that would be done with facility, and at a trifling cost, which can now only be performed with difficulty, and by a considerable outlay. Canals those cheap and useful modes of communication, cannot be formed in New Holland, in consequence of the deficiency of streams to provide water for them.

The climate of Australia is subject to long droughts, whose terrific effects are thus mentioned by Captain Sturt. "The year 1826, commenced the fearful droughts, to which we have reason to believe the climate of New South Wales is periodically subject. It con-

tinued the two following years with unabated severity. The surface of the earth became so parched up, that the minor vegetation ceased upon it. Culinary herbs were raised with difficulty; and crops failed even in the most favourable situations. Settlers drove their flocks and herds to distant tracts for pasture and water. The interior suffered equally with the coast; and men at length began to despond under so alarming a visitation. It almost appeared as if the Australian sky was never again to be traversed by a cloud." These destructive droughts are followed by excessively long rains, which relieve the suffering inhabitants, resuscitate vegetation, and give to the whole country a far different aspect to the previously scorched appearance of its soil. It is needless to point out the highly pernicious influence which those periodical visitations must exercise on the prospects of all classes of the community. Every one suffers during these terrible calamities, aggravated beyond measure by the uncertain period of their continuance.

The following remarks show the opinion en-

tertained by Sir T. L. Mitchell of the character of the soil of New South Wales. The high official position, and the hard earned reputation of this distinguished explorer and writer, give such a weight and character to his statements of what he witnessed, as to entitle them to the greatest possible consideration.

"* It has been observed, that the soil in New South Wales is good, only where trap, limestone, or granite rocks occur. Sandstone, however, predominates so much, as to cover about six-sevenths of the whole surface, comprised within the boundaries of nineteen counties. Wherever this is the surface rock, little besides barren sand is found in the place of soil. Deciduous vegetation scarcely exists there, no vegetable soil is formed, for the trees and shrubs being very inflammable, conflagrations take place so frequently and extensively, in the woods during summer, as to leave very little vegetable matter to return to earth. On the highest mountains, and in places the most remote and

* Sir T. L. Mitchell's Three Expeditions into the Interior of Eastern Australia, 2nd vol. second edition.

desolate, I have always found on every dead trunk on the ground, and living tree of any magnitude also, the marks of fire; and thus it appeared that these annual conflagrations extend to every place. In the regions of sandstone, the territory is, in short, good for nothing, and is, besides, very generally inaccessible, thus presenting a formidable obstruction to any communication between isolated spots of a better description." "The prevailing geological feature in all Eastern Australia, is the great abundance of a ferruginous sandstone in proportion to any other rocks. The sterility of the country where it occurs, has been frequently noticed in these volumes. It is found on the coast of Port Jackson, and it was the furthest rock seen by me in the interior, beyond the Darling." "Where there is so much unproductive surface, the unavoidable dispersion of population renders good lines of communication more essentially necessary, and these must consist of roads, for there are neither navigable rivers, nor, in general, the means of forming canals."

A perusal of Mr. Eyre's description of the country over which he travelled, whilst in command of the northern expedition, would serve to dispel some of the illusions respecting New Holland. The account given by that singularly enterprising explorer, is peculiarly discouraging. His intelligence, his contempt of danger, and his self-possession whilst surrounded by perils which would have overwhelmed any one of less energy, or of a less determined resolution, render his descriptions exceedingly valuable, and worthy the attentive consideration of every one who is anxious to form a correct opinion of the country he describes. In his communication of the 30th of January, 1841, written at Fowler's Bay, and addressed to the Chairman of the Committee for Promoting the Northern Expedition, he says,—"I had already examined the tract of country from the longitude of Adelaide to the parallel of almost 130 degrees east longitude; an extent comprising nearly 8½ degrees of longitude, without my having found a single point from which it was possible to penetrate far into the interior, and I

now found myself in circumstances of so embarrassing and hopeless a character, that I have most reluctantly been compelled to give up all further idea of contending with obstacles which there is no reasonable hope of ever overcoming. I have now, therefore, with much regret, completely broken up my small but devoted party."

From the dryness of the Australian atmosphere during the summer, it results that no dew can be formed. In those countries, in which the air contains so much moisture as to be unable to retain it all during the low temperature of the nights, vegetation flourishes without the assistance of fertilizing rains; the dew gives life and strength to all the plants which experience its benign influence, but this important benefit is not experienced in the Australian summer, for the atmosphere,—dry beyond measure,—cannot part with any moisture to relieve the parched up herbage. As soon as the scorching heat of summer sets in, the vegetation loses its fresh tint of green, which is gradually converted into a dusky brown, and this it retains until the rains of winter change the

appearance of the country. The English people, whose anxiety is to rid their land of superabundant moisture, can form no idea of the anxiety of settlers in Australia for showers to succour their dried-up soil. They are little aware of the expense which the settler in New Holland incurs, in order to derive all the benefits which he possibly can from the rain-water, which falls on his land.

The Sydney Monitor, of the 26th of March, 1836, remarks on this point.—"Of what use is fertile land without moisture? It may do for vines, after the ground has been trenched, at the cost of £20. per acre, but it will not produce either bread, meat, or butter." Again, "What a reflection on the climate of New South Wales is it, that our brewers find it cheaper to buy their malt at the distance of half the globe than to grow it." And again, "But what art or cost can supply the want of moisture."

In New Holland, the time of vegetable growth is not during the Summer as in Great Britain, but during the winter or rainy season. During the dry summer, vegetation is stopped

by the scorching hot wind and the fervid sun, the herbage is brown, all vegetable life droops, and its increase is prevented; the course of life becomes feeble in the extreme; everything has a dread and dreary aspect. On the approach of the wet season, the first showers produce a most striking and exhilarating effect, the herbage loses its sombre hue, and takes instead, beauteous tints of green; vegetation advances rapidly, and when the rains regularly set in, the change in the appearance of the land is most surprising, the parched up soil on which no vegetation was apparent, now teeming with vegetable life. As in the winter of England vegetation is quiescent, so is it in the summer of New Holland. Cold produces the effect in one country which is caused by excessive heat in the other. Frost is rarely met with on the low lands of New Holland; on high and exposed situations, however, it is by no means uncommon.

Soon after the depasture of sheep in a district, the native annual grasses are frequently destroyed, from the sheep nipping down the

herbage so low as to eat the seeds as well as the grasses themselves. Those kinds alone escape whose seed vessels are situated so near the ground as to be beyond the reach of the flocks. Much inconvenience is frequently sustained from this cause, which continues until the natural pasture of the country is replaced by English and other perennial grasses.

In many instances, the natives of foreign countries have entirely displaced the natural vegetation; and if the imported grasses comprised only that portion of the vegetable kingdom which is either ornamental or useful, the change would be highly serviceable; but, unfortunately, noxious weeds have been also introduced from Europe, which have increased rapidly, to the great injury of the useful native vegetation. It is to be feared, that it is impossible wholly to prevent their introduction in certain quantities, but undoubtedly much evil might be prevented by care.

Englishmen are apt to imagine, that an abundance of trees which are evergreens, must present at all times a pleasing appearance; and

the trees in New Holland are evergreen, that is to say, the leaves do not fall off at any particular season of the year, but are constantly dropping. Disappointment will be experienced, however, on beholding, for the first time, the foliage of New Holland;—instead of the fresh tint of green which was expected, a never-varying sombre hue prevails. It is true the trees never wear the bleak appearance which they have in England during the winter months, but this difference is more than compensated for, by the want of the fresh bright green of the English spring, and the rich, varying, and highly picturesque tints of its autumn. The settler, indeed, longs for a change in the foliage of New Holland, and he remembers, with regret, the beauteous varieties of tints with which his native land abounds. Even the vegetation that appears from an elevated position to be a fine turf, proves, on a closer inspection, to be but a coarse herbage.

There is one circumstance connected with the leaves of this country, which is worthy of observation:—Unlike the leaves of trees in Europe,

which present one surface to the sky and the other to the earth, they are often arranged in such a manner that each side is equally opposed to the light.

As might be anticipated, from its dependence more than any other occupation on the nature of the climate and seasons, agriculture is conducted in a manner remarkably different to the system prevalent in Great Britain, and although by no means a finished style of farming, it is doubtless better adapted than any other to the means and wants of the settlers, as it has stood the test of many years experience. Notwithstanding the difference in the geographical position, in the capabilities of the soil, in the character of the climate and seasons, and of the means of the settlers, farmers fresh from England find it difficult to divest their minds of the paramount excellence of English farming, and consider that the plans which succeed in England will do well elsewhere.

Farmers are perhaps more than any other class of men deeply rooted in their prejudices; their travels rarely extend beyond the nearest

market-town, and it is rare, indeed, for them to pass out of the district in which they were born and reared. It is, therefore, not to be wondered at, that it should be a work of much time to prove to such a person, in a new country, that his British system of farming is inapplicable.

As the climate of England is wet and temperate, and that of Australia dry and very hot, it is obvious that the system which is well fitted for the one country, *must* be wholly unfit for the other. As the English land is benefitted by drainage, so the Australian soil is improved by irrigation. Now, of any method of irrigating land, the English farmer, with few exceptions, is profoundly ignorant. The English agriculturist who emigrates to these colonies will consequently have to get rid of his early notions, and commence anew the rudiments of an art of which he considered himself the master; and to add to his difficulties, instead of the services of quiet, respectable, and hard-working labourers, he must be content with those of felons, or of dissolute freemen, who will leave his employ-

ment on the slightest reproof for ignorance or misconduct. There is, perhaps, no greater annoyance to an English settler, than being forced—nay, feeling that he must consider himself fortunate—to have in his service men who have no knowledge of agricultural pursuits, and whose only recommendation is their physical strength. He has, consequently, to teach the men he employs—himself deficient in knowledge, as applicable to his present circumstances—and this annoyance is increased by the necessity of incessant watchfulness, in order to guard against their notorious dishonesty.

A great portion of the land, suitable for the growth of food, is so thickly and heavily timbered, as to require large outlay on it before it can be brought under cultivation. The enormous expense which attends the clearing the land in some districts, where the trees are large and near together, and where labour is dear, bears heavily on the pockets of those who have settled in them, and the evil is the greater because it is frequently not anticipated.

A cheap plan of clearing heavily-timbered

land, is to cut through the bark all around, going also into the substance of the tree itself—the effect of which is to kill the tree. This should be done when the sap is rising. If the tree be set on fire some months after, it will burn readily. It is a very common practice, in clearing land for tillage, to saw off the trunks of the trees about two or three feet from the soil, the roots being grubbed up at a future period. When there is no deficiency of money at command, it is advisable that the trees should be grubbed up by the roots at once, by cutting the roots below the ground, as, in this way, the stems act as levers in drawing out the roots. This plan, however, is not generally followed, because the object of the settler is to get his land into cultivation as soon as possible, which is done more expeditiously by cutting the trunks of the trees.

Upon very few subjects has more exaggeration been used, than on that of the profits resulting from sheep-farming in Australia. It has been affirmed that the profits are enormous, owing to the circumstance that sheep hardly

ever suffer from disease in this peculiarly suitable climate. But it will be found, on investigation, that an epidemic catarrh, or influenza, is very destructive to the flocks on the eastern side of New Holland — whilst great numbers are lost, on the western side, by a vegetable poison of so virulent a description, that the blood of the poisoned animals is fatal to the dogs that drink it.

In 1835, Sir Richard Bourke, the then Governor of New South Wales, directed Mr. George Bennett, a surgeon, to institute a strict enquiry into a disease which had been very destructive to sheep in various parts of the colony. In the report which Mr. Bennett drew up of his proceedings, he calls the disease an epidemic catarrh, or influenza. He describes the mortality to have been very great in some flocks. Those of Mr. Campbell, at Burrowa, suffered as under:—

Out of	700 Wethers	400 died.
„	2,603 Breeding Ewes.....	1,600 „
„	900 Weaned Lambs	500 „
	Total loss.....	2,500

At Gonnong, a station belonging to Mr. Kennedy, 600 sheep died out of 850 attacked by the epidemic. The number of deaths among the flocks at Lockyersleigh, were 648 out of 1,476 similarly attacked. In his report, Mr. Bennett alludes to a statement of Mr. W. H. Dutton, who says,—"On my arrival from Sydney at Yass, I found that a disease of a very virulent nature had attacked one of my neighbour's flocks, and in an incredible short space of time had swept away three-fourths of the whole."

Attached to Mr. Bennett's report is a letter to the colonial secretary from Mr. Andrew Gibson, J.P., who considers that the cause of this disease probably depends upon the extreme and sudden changes of temperature. "The weather," Mr. Gibson observes, "throughout these districts, during the winter months, having been not only unusually cold and dry, but exceedingly variable; severe frosty nights and hot days, constantly alternating, so as to effect a change in the thermometer of from 32 to 65, or even 70 deg., in the twenty-four hours."

It is thus apparent, that sheep in New South

Wales do not enjoy that exemption from disease which is so generally believed in England.

With respect to the poisonous plant on the western side of New Holland, it belongs, strange to say, to the natural order *leguminosæ* or *fabaceæ*. On the banks of the Swan River it has been called the "black adder creek plant," from its growing abundantly in the immediate neighbourhood of that creek, near which, considerable losses of stock have occurred in a sudden manner. The variety which grows on the banks of the Swan is a perennial shrub, about two feet high; roots running deeply into the ground, leaves lanceolate, about an inch and half long, ending in a prickly point, and each furnished at the base with two narrow prickle-like stipules. Calyx fine cleft, the divisions equal, the corolla standard deep orange, keel crimson, followed by a round hairy seed vessel, about the size of a pea, placed on a short foot stalk. This species or variety differs from the plant found to the eastward of the Darling Range, by having smaller leaves of a deeper green, and having the young leaves slightly villous.—The

honour of having discovered this to be the poisonous plant, belongs to Mr. Drummond, Senior, of the Toodaye district, whilst I had the good fortune to devise a mode of palliation of its effects.

The Agricultural Society of Western Australia, having informed me through their honorary secretary (Dr. Harris), that their funds should be placed at my disposal to conduct the series of experiments which I considered necessary, I attended at Guildford, August 13th, 1841, when it was demonstrated that the plant was poisonous. At half-past eleven, A.M., the plant was given in its natural state to one sheep and two goats. At twelve, one sheep and one goat were drenched with a mixture of the pounded plant in water. These animals all died the same day. The first death was at fifty minutes past three, P.M., and the last at seven, P.M. Of the animals that eat the plant in its natural state, the sheep died at fifty minutes past three, P.M., one of the goats at half-past four, P.M., and the remaining goat at seven, P.M. Without going more particularly into these experiments, it may be sufficient to

remark, that of six animals on which the antidote (soda) was tried, two recovered, whilst the lives of the others were prolonged. This was not, however, a fair experiment, because the same animals,—sheep and goats,—were drenched two days before with tartar emetic, ipecacuanha, and sulphate of zinc. I was obliged to try the soda on these animals because the funds at my disposal were limited. But sufficient was done to show, that there is an antidote; and it now remains for the agricultural society of Western Australia to carry out my views on this subject, as by so doing, they will probably discover an antidote even more efficacious than soda. The sheep and goats are chiefly affected by this plant in the autumn. Its baneful effects are the more to be deplored, as it does not grow in the very inferior districts, but on soils which would otherwise be the most valuable for the rearing of sheep.

It has been computed, that three, and even four, acres of land are required to keep one sheep, even in the picked pasture districts of New Holland; and if the whole of the known territory were taken into account, a statement

of the number of acres required for the support of each sheep would defy credibility.

There is scarcely a more constant source of annoyance to the settler than the great difficulty amounting almost to an impossibility, of having about him honest and respectable servants; and this difficulty applies to all descriptions of servants from the highest to the lowest, although they all demand exorbitantly high wages. The settler is completely at the mercy of the persons whom he employs. At the seasons when much work requires to be done, and when labour is obtained with difficulty, servants make their masters sensible of their power; nor is the amount of wages any criterion of a servant's value, as it will often be found that, although dissolute and badly-conducted, he may, from his being the only person capable of working at a particular trade within a considerable distance, insist upon high remuneration. At the same time that this occurs in one portion of the country, in another, a well-conducted person, skilled in the same branch of art, may only be able to earn sufficient for a subsistence in con-

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sequence of his trade not happening to be in requisition. As every settler requires generally the same work done at nearly the same period of the year, it necessarily follows that every one must pay dearly for every description of labour, and that the power of assisting one another is very limited.

It is clear that wherever labour is so dear and obtained with so much difficulty as in New Holland, every kind of undertaking which requires manual labour is liable to be entirely stopped at any period of its progress. It is useless for the contractor, who is bound to finish his engagements within a given time, to urge the men whom he employs to increased exertion by offers of large wages, if they happen to be disinclined to work. If they are disposed to sottishness, nothing in the shape of expostulation or remonstrance will induce them to forego their carousal and return to their labour. It may be asked, whether there are not some exceptions to this, and whether there are not some other sober working men? It is readily granted that there are; but it is as firmly maintained,

that the inveterate drunkards very far outnumber the steady men, and that to the former class belongs by far the larger number of the working population. Men who land on these shores with the intention of living a steady, temperate life, are often so led away by the pernicious example of their fellows, as to become tainted with the besetting sin. Drunkenness in England is attended with a sufficiently appalling number of ruinous effects; but in this land, its baneful influence is even still more devastating. It is a circumstance as lamentable as it is true, that the sweat of the poor man's brow, instead of procuring for him the comforts of life, goes to the enrichment of the spirit seller, and to the completion of his own destruction.

One of the greatest inconveniences to which a breeder of stock in many districts is exposed resulting from the dispersion of the population, is the impossibility of punishing his servants for any offences they may commit without himself suffering as much,—frequently even more—than those who have misconducted themselves. When a settler's station is situated

many miles from a magistrate, he must incur the loss of much time, at perhaps a season of the year when every moment is of the greatest consequence to him, if he is determined to have them punished. The servants are abundantly independent in the towns, but at far distant stations they have almost everything their own way, for the expense and loss of time in getting them punished, renders their *nominal* masters highly desirous to avoid so unprofitable a proceeding. So that, whilst the servants conduct themselves in a manner at all bearable, employers are too glad to overlook any minor offences. It must be evident, that assigned convict servants will not be slow in taking advantage of the perplexing situation of their masters; nor are the free labourers by any means backward in availing themselves of the almost complete exemption from punishment which must more or less occur in all stations far removed from the power of the law. The distant settler is indeed placed in a most trying situation,—he is in a cleft-stick of difficulties. If he takes his men to the nearest magistrate to be punished for their evil

doings, he loses more than he gains; and if he takes no notice of their misconduct, they proceed from bad to worse, until they hold themselves quite above his authority;—and that man must be endowed with remarkable firmness and equanimity of temper who is enabled to keep his servants at all under subjection.

Such is the force of evil example, that even those servants who conducted themselves with extreme propriety in England, have become infected when they have been taken by their employers to New Holland; and many, very many, have had cause to repent the trouble and expense which they have thus incurred.

The system of indenture has been tried, but without success, as it is always in the power of an indentured servant to render himself an incumbrance rather than an assistance to his employer, if he be desirous to leave the person who gave him his passage to the colony; and if the indentured servant prove unfit for his employment, he will remain a heavy drag on the person to whom he is indentured. In either case, the employer can scarcely fail of being a loser;

for, if the servant turns out a good and profitable workman, he will be able to render his indenture a dead letter; but if he is useless, he will cling to the person to whom he is indentured.

The scheme of special surveys of land has received much commendation. It is very doubtful, however, how far that can be worthy of recommendation which has the effect of being serviceable to the great capitalist whether he be resident or an absentee, to the detriment of the striving, but poor settler.

The system of special surveys enables the man of capital to obtain the best land at a very cheap rate, and this system is more oppressive to the small proprietor in Australia than, perhaps, in any other country, owing to the unequal character of its soil. In all colonies money has a sufficient influence, and has a manifest tendency to increase itself. I cannot, therefore, esteem it other than an impropriety and an injustice to give to the possessor of wealth a positive and direct advantage over his poorer competitor. By this plan the hard work-

ing colonist by his unremitting exertions, increases the value of the property of the wealthy absentee, who derives a large income from the industry of another; or, it may be regarded as a tax on the capital and assiduity of the colonist, for the manifest gain of the wealthy absentee who receives an impost from the perseverance of others, without ever leaving his comfortable home in the mother country.

The investment of capital in a colony is unquestionably a benefit not only to the moneyed man who obtains a very large interest, but also to the colonists in general, because it enables persons, who would be otherwise unable, to commence undertakings of the greatest utility to the community. But this is no reason why more advantageous terms should be given to a large than to a small capital. A particular school of political economists, may consider it immaterial in what place the interest of money is spent, but it would not be difficult to prove, that when the interest of a large capital invested in a colony is spent in Europe, it is so much money lost to the

small community in which it is raised. The non-residence of the large proprietors is the more seriously felt, as their wants are greater than those of any other class, and the labour required by them is of such a nature as to command better payment than any other. It is clear that it would be for the advantage of a colony to pay a larger interest for the use of his money to a resident capitalist than to the absentee proprietor in Europe.

Although fully admitting the advantages which arise to a colony from the investment of money in it by large capitalists, whose income is derived solely from the interest of their money whether resident or not, I do not see the slightest reason why the government should give out of the industry of the hard toiling settler, a bonus to the large money holder, or why the industry of the humble landowner should be taxed for the *sole* benefit of the moneyed men. And I think the special survey system injurious, because it presses heavily on those who are the least able to bear the burthen, and who are the most entitled to consideration.

The man who purchases land without carefully investigating its character, will, very probably, be a loser by the speculation, and there are not many persons who would dream of buying any landed property in England without a minute inspection. If the character of the English soil requires cautious investigation to decide its value, how much more care is necessary in the purchase of land in New Holland. And yet absurd as it must appear, the practice has prevailed of buying in London, after reference to a map, the land on which the purchasers are to settle when they arrive in New Holland. As might be anticipated, they usually find—but, alas! when too late to retrieve their error—that the price of Australian land in Australia is far below the price of the same land in London. In the one place something is *known* of the soil, whereas in the other, everything is *imagined*; and where persons are left to the exercise of their own fancies in forming an estimate of value, it is not surprising that they should be disposed to exaggerate.

Nothing *seems* fairer than the sale by auc-

tion, as a person need only give what he considers a remunerating price for land, and it is pretty certain to fetch its value, every one having an opportunity of bidding: but, however good the sale of land by auction may appear in theory, the practice is found to be attended with many advantages to the jobber, and serious disadvantages to the intelligent and industrious emigrant. A little consideration will shew that the land-jobber enjoys the benefit of the experience and toil of the hard working *bonâ fide* settler.

When a person skilled in the knowledge of soils, arrives in a colony in which the land is sold by auction, with the view of remaining in it, he naturally endeavours to select good land. To accomplish this, he has to undergo fatigue, to expend much time—which to him is of vast importance,—and to make use of all his information. The seeking after good land is as tedious as it is expensive. When he has made his choice, the land is put up for sale—he bids for it, confident of becoming the purchaser, having resolved to give a good price for it. Some

other person, however—much to his surprise and annoyance—gives a higher price for it than he can afford to do, and he is entirely thrown aback at the outset of his colonial career.

In fact, the emigrant and land-jobber do not compete on equal terms. The trading jobber in land can give as much as the emigrant *plus* the amount of time and money expended in the selection of the land. In no country are the advantages in favour of the land-jobber, greater than in New Holland, where the patches of good land are so few and far between. Many of the evils attending this system are obviated by its being sold at a certain fixed sum, and on the principle of *seniores priores*, the person who applies first having the preference over all others. What ever opinions, practical men may entertain of many of the recent regulations for colonial affairs, they cannot but estimate the change of system from the sale of land by auction to the imposition of a fixed sum, as having a tendency to benefit the well-disposed, industrious emigrant.

But although the system of disposal at a definite

fixed sum is advantageous to the actual tiller of the soil, inasmuch as it prevents his being run up in his price by the mere land-jobber; it is, nevertheless, one which has many drawbacks when it is applied to colonies where the land differs materially in its character and fertility, more especially when the purchase-money happens to be very high. Instead of the fixed price being forced as high up the scale as possible, it would be better for the government, and for the colony, to have it placed rather under than over the price for which it could be sold in the market. When a high sum is required for land, it cannot fail to happen that the inexperienced—and all emigrants must be, to a certain extent, inexperienced—will expend that money in the purchase of land at a high price, which ought to be held back as a capital for the maintenance of labour. Something like this happened not long since at Sydney. Whilst the outcry for labour was heard on all sides, emigrant labourers were plodding all over the country in search of employment, which they could not find. The cause of this is evident, however much it may

be mystified. The settlers not only wanted labour, they also wanted the means to pay for that labour. If they had reserved some portion of their capital to expend in the support of labour, the money so laid out would no doubt have returned a good interest to them; but when land can only be purchased at the large price of one pound, or even twelve shillings an acre, in a country where but a very small fractional part of it is worth anything like that sum, it is not surprising that the fresh arrivals should purchase a larger quantity than they ought. If they intend to remain, they must have some at whatever price, and few of them can be aware of the numerous drains which there are on the capital of the settler.

It is, perhaps, possible to devise a plan by which the objections to the sale of land at a fixed sum, and by the ordinary regulations of public auction, may be entirely removed. The sale of land at one pound an acre is bad; because, in the first place, there is very little of it for which it will pay a man to give that price; and, secondly, because in some districts

very advantageously situated, and where the land also happens to be peculiarly fertile, it is worth a great deal more. It may be urged that the one objection counterbalances the other,—that as the settler gives more in the one case, and less in the other, than his land is worth, there can be no very serious disadvantage attending it. But it must be borne in mind, that the two transactions are not necessarily entered into by the same party, and that it is for the ultimate gain of the government to sell the land at a low sum rather than embarrass the emigrants in their novel career. The sale of land by common public auction is objectionable, because it offers a premium on the trade of land jobbing... A method of sale is required which would give the settler an opportunity of buying land at its just value, whilst it prevented his obtaining it for much less than its real worth, and which annihilated, at the same time the trade of mere jobbing in land. If, at a public auction for the sale of land, a rise of five shillings were compulsory at each bidding, mere land jobbing would be destroyed, because although land might

be worth rather more than five, it might be worth much less than ten shillings; and, consequently, no one would give the extra five shillings per acre for it, without being well satisfied of its value; the emigrant would procure his land at a fair price, and the gain of the government would be the ultimate prosperity of the settler.

If a system of colonisation were to have its origin in the colonies, it is very probable that one of its principles would be the placing a tax on all uncultivated and unoccupied lands, which are not only a complete dead weight, but exercise a very pernicious influence on the toiling colonist. The owners of these lands, of themselves indolent, thrive by the unremitting assiduity of the hard working population. Their property is made valuable by the cultivation of the surrounding lands, and their fortunes promoted by the untiring perseverance of others. In consequence of their holding lands which they neither cultivate nor occupy, emigrants are forced to go farther in the bush than would otherwise be necessary; they are placed farther

from a town-site from whence they can obtain supplies, and to which they can forward the surplus produce of their farms. No resident in an old country can form an idea of the extent of the evil of unoccupied or uncultivated land in a new country. It tells heavily against the settlers on their most vulnerable point. The emigrant who has to pass beyond a tract of unoccupied land, works only indirectly for his own profit, he toils directly for the gain of the owner of the land, which is not cultivated; and therefore as the unoccupied lands are highly injurious to the undertakings of all settlers, it is but equitable that a heavy impost should be raised on these lands, as some compensation for the mischief they inflict. But as their owners are very generally men of influence at home, it can hardly be expected that the wrongs of the settlers will be redressed in this particular, seeing that the one party is at the seat of government, and the other removed from it by the distance of half the globe.

CHAPTER V.

" Heav'n may help
The erring traveller there."

THAT settler is fortunate who is enabled to procure food from his land after he has had possession of it twelve months. Although there can be no doubt that it may some times be done in a shorter time, I am convinced that it much more frequently happens that a very much longer period elapses before this desirable consummation can be effected; much time being occupied when a settler first arrives on his land, in erecting some sort of dwelling for his family, and in clearing his land before he can sow any seeds.

In reflecting on this momentous subject it must not be forgotten, that nothing can be done

in a new country without great expense, nor without the waste of much time, because no one can rely on procuring the number of labourers he may require. If the settler directs his attention to the breeding of stock, it will be long before that stock will be available in feeding his family. He must wait for the breeding of the female stock which he has purchased, and for the growth of the offspring, before he can procure any wethers for the knife without diminishing his capital. The unavoidable delays which necessarily impede the settler in his endeavours to make his land productive as speedily as possible, are the most severely felt of any of the obstacles he has to encounter, because his resolution is apt to waver under so long a continuance of difficulties.

When there is an extensive emigration to a country which is not peculiarly well fitted for the growth of food, and which is situated at a considerable distance from a country where the capabilities for the production of the necessaries of life are so abundant that food is plentiful and to be obtained at a low rate, it cannot but

happen that much privation and much suffering must be the necessary consequence of that migration, arising from the scarcity and the consequent dearness of provisions. However well adapted a country may be, for the production of articles of commerce of great value, yielding great profits to the persons engaged in their production, if it is not, at the same time, a food growing country, or if there does not exist extreme facility in procuring the necessaries of life from some other quarter, where food is cheap and abundant, that country is remarkably ill-fitted for the settlement of large numbers of people. For however much the question may be overlooked, either designedly or inadvertently, it cannot be denied, that the means of obtaining supplies of the necessaries of life, is of the highest importance to the very existence of any body of people in any situation; and it is one which is beset with numerous difficulties, when a large number of persons settle in a hasty manner, with no previous consideration respecting the mode in which food is to be brought to them in a country which is ill-adapted for its

growth, and which is not, in essential points, a corn growing country. In the event of large masses of people settling themselves in a country which, although deficient of the power of producing food in large quantities, is so near a corn growing country as to enable it to import this great sustainer of life with facility and at a cheap rate, the evil is diminished in its extent; but it is, nevertheless, not done away with: for, however rich that country may be in its natural productions,—however profitable its export trade may become at a future period, it must for some time, be deprived of much of its capital, which must go to pay for the food consumed by its inhabitants.

If the first settlers of any one of the colonies of New Holland had considered in what manner they were to subsist, until their own lands were brought into a state of cultivation, they would probably have taken with them supplies, which would have lasted until their own land produced them; but the emigrations to New Holland have been generally as hasty as they have been deficient of forethought. It is not to

be supposed that the mass of the English people, who have been accustomed to have all their wants satisfied when they have had the means of paying for what they require, should be aware of the necessity of laying in under any circumstances large stores of provisions; and the persons who have set themselves up as their teachers have not been better instructed than those they undertook to inform. It has been proved, that the surplus produce of Van Dieman's Land, added to that grown in New Holland, is not at all times sufficient for the consumption of its inhabitants, and it is therefore clear, that a migration to that country should only be undertaken after such arrangements have been made, as will ensure to the settlers, freedom from the want of the necessaries of life.

The ill effects of the cumbersome system of barter are also more felt in a country like New Holland, which is deficient of valuable raw produce, because there is more difficulty, under such circumstances, in procuring commodities which may be given in exchange for the articles

wanted. During the first years of settlement, there must always be experienced considerable difficulty in bartering one kind of mercantile commodity with another, because all the emigrants carry with them very nearly the same description of merchandize; and it must happen that a very large stock of one article will be in the market, and a very small proportion of another,—or more frequently a glut of some articles whilst others are entirely wanting.

For example, almost every *bonâ fide* settler or tiller of the soil will take out with him a stock of agricultural implements. His friends in England will strongly recommend him to lay in a large quantity of such articles; and they will reason, that they must be cheaper in the country in which they are made, than in a wilderness, thousands of miles from any manufacturing country; and that, consequently, it is judicious to procure such a number as will be sufficient for his use during a long period. From the circumstance that every one is actuated by the same motives, and that each one experiences a difficulty in commencing his

pastoral occupations, it obtains, that those very goods which the emigrant was fearful of not being enabled to procure at any price, actually lie about as so much lumber; no one purchasing, because every one has more than he wants.

The man who foresees previously to his departure from Europe, that much difficulty and expense must be undergone before the emigrants can raise supplies from their land, will reap a rich harvest if he has the means of laying in a large stock of the necessaries of life, and of those luxuries which have become by long habit with many people, necessary in their opinion to their existence. When there is no deficiency of any article required by any of the population in a community, it is evident that the system of bartering one thing with another, may be troublesome, but cannot be very injurious. But when a man has nothing which is desired by another party to offer in exchange for what he wants, it is evident that no barter can take place. It follows that an emigrant to a newly settled country will pursue a very ill-advised and injudicious course if he expends

nearly all his capital, prior to his departure from his native land, in the purchase of implements necessary to an agriculturist; for if he does, he will be completely at the mercy of the store keeper and the money lender, for means to carry on his operations, and for his daily food, until he has raised crops on his land. Again, it is very evident that when there is a deficiency of specie, and of other exchangeable merchandise, in any settlement, the residents can have no means of paying for the articles which are produced in abundance by other countries, and the want of which is so severely felt. Therefore, it is to the advantage of the aggregate of the population, as well as of every individual resident in a new country, naturally deficient of valuable raw produce easily obtainable, to be provided with a quantity of specie or some other easily transferable means of paying for food for their subsistence, until supplies sufficient for the consumption of the entire community can be raised within its territory.

This is a question which demands the close attention not only of the individuals who pro-

ceed to a new settlement, but also of the government of that country, of which the colony may be an off-shoot; because it is manifestly an important part of its duty to supply the persons under its controul with the means of subsistence, to secure them against starvation, and because serious disturbances cannot but take place in that community in which the supply of the necessaries of life is not adequate to the consumption of its population.

However lightly the English partisans of emigration may esteem the foresight which provides food for the consumption of those emigrants who land in a colony, previous to the cultivation of any portion of it, it must be manifest that it would have the effect of preventing many evils of the greatest magnitude—it would materially smooth a path which is, under the most favourable circumstances, a most difficult and dangerous one. Corn grows by magic no more in one place, than it does in another. But if, instead of bringing food, emigrants bring specie with them

to pay for food, they will be in a much better position than if they had laid out nearly all their means, prior to their departure from Europe, in buying large quantities of land, or in paying for the passage of a large establishment.

In the first place, land in any colony can almost invariably be bought at a lower rate in that colony than in the mother-country; and servants are almost certain to leave the persons by whom their passages were paid, or to conduct themselves with so much impropriety and indolence as to be a burthen rather than an advantage; in the second place, when food is scarce, and when money is scarce too, the exchange of farming implements, or of other commodities, for food, will be attended with great loss. Now, although the draining of specie is highly injurious to a new country, because its capital is small, still the exchange of money for corn will be less severely felt in the country which grows no corn, than the barter of mercantile commodities which are not produced on the spot.

When a colony is drained of its capital for any purpose, the effect is felt throughout all classes of the community,—its want impedes every operation in that colony, and it deadens the energy and the industry of its inhabitants.

The first settlers of a colony, situated at a distance from any civilized country, will learn by experience that money is merely an exchangeable commodity—an exceedingly useful one, certainly, when one party wants it, and possesses some other commodity which is desired in barter by the other—they will discover that it is possible for money to be plentiful, and for food to be scarce. English people are, perhaps, of all others, the least adapted in some points for commencing the colonization of a country which is separated from other countries from which supplies might be drawn. The commerce of Great Britain, extended into every corner of the habitable world, from which either the necessaries or luxuries of life may be derived, bears to its inhabitants a constant and uninterrupted supply of all that civilized man can desire, and for the purchase of which, such

extreme facilities are offered, that the smallest quantity of any commodity may be bought in almost any situation, at so low a rate, owing to the competition among the importers and venders, as to give to all parties interested, only a small profit. It can occasion no surprise that the English people, whose slightest wants have been supplied from their earliest recollections, whose habits have become formed by the system which has influenced all their actions, should be less fitted to rough it under circumstances directly the opposite of those which have previously affected them—and that they should be more at a loss than those who have been born and bred in a less complicated state of society, to manage their affairs, in that primitive mode of life which emigrants choose for themselves. The Englishman, who has never found a difficulty in procuring any commodity which he might require, provided he has possessed some other to give in exchange for it, cannot understand how it can ever happen that he can want for food when he has money to pay for it. He forgets that when he

deserted his native shores, and landed in the colony which he had chosen for his future abode, he left a highly complex state of society for a primitive one,—that he abandoned a country where the supplies of every luxury are abundant and unceasing, for one in which the first supporter of life is very apt to be inadequate to the wants of the community. However much the unceasing energy of the British people contributes to their prosperity under any circumstances, it must be conceded that they are not so well adapted for the shifts and privations to which early colonists are forced to submit, as they would be, had they lived formerly in a less refined but more primitive state of society.

It is not surprising, that in a country where money is scarce, and where the interest which it bears is great, every endeavour should be made to render the capital as profitable as possible—and that a very large proportion should be converted into active and profitable stock. Although, under particular circumstances, it happens that a goodly share of the capital of

an old country is locked up and remains idle, and does not in consequence tend directly to increase the industry or prosperity of its inhabitants; still the knowledge that there is a surplus stock, which is kept on hand to meet any sudden emergency, gives a firmness to the commercial operations of that country, and ensures a steadiness in all its mercantile transactions, which tends in no inconsiderable degree to secure the profitable results of that portion of the stock which is active, thus protecting the industry and the prosperity of the inhabitants. The residents in a new country are apt to extend their operations as far as their means will permit, and are indisposed to allow any portion of their capital to remain unemployed, from the obvious reason that the inducement for a man to employ all his stock in commerce is much greater where the advantages derived are numerous, than where, when so used, the profits are comparatively small.

Dr. Smith has compared the gold and silver which circulates as money in a country to a highway, which, while it circulates and carries

to market all the grass and corn of the country, is of itself unproductive. Unquestionably the lessening of the metallic currency enables a country to convert a great part of those highways into pastures and corn-fields, and thereby to increase the annual produce of its land and labour; but the commercial operations of a new country, at the same time that they are apt to break up a portion of its highways to render them productive, are also liable to have the effect of leaving but a very small portion of its highways untouched. From the facility with which the representative of stock is made to produce to its owner the advantages of that value it represents, there is great danger that the substitute may be formed without the actual possession of the thing represented, and that trade may be carried on by means of a counterfeit where the real capital has never been in existence, So long as the confidence of all parties interested in the stability of the active stock of a country remains unshaken, no evil results will arise from its extension, but when there is any doubt of its being fictitious, then

will the prosperity of that country be liable to be shattered.

So far has the system of forcing a representation of stock to perform the work of actual capital, been carried in some colonies, that promissory notes for the amount of a few pence have been thrust into circulation, and that dangerous issue, the £1. note, forms a large portion of the circulating medium in these colonies. The natural consequence of such a system followed. Frauds and forgeries stalked in its train, and when once the money transactions of a country that has converted nearly all its capital into active stock receives a check, prosperity is changed for wide spreading disorder, and great commercial distress is the necessary consequence.

The settlers in many districts suffer materially from variations in the marketable value of cattle, and all descriptions of mercantile commodities. From the uncertainty of the colonial market, any speculations in it partake much more of the character of gambling than the same description of transactions in an old

country, where commercial operations can be conducted in a more secure and certain manner.

It follows that speculators who embark their money in commercial transactions, in colonies whose capital is never suffered to remain unemployed, will meet with reverses when they least expected them. Against such contingencies, it is impossible for the most watchful circumspection to guard effectually. It will occur when but few persons can foresee for any time the possibility that the capital of the country will be insufficient to purchase any imported goods, and, at the same time, to meet its liabilities. Thus the commercial speculator, who has received intelligence that a certain description of goods is much needed in a particular district, will frequently be a loser,—not from any failing in the correctness of his information, but from an inability to obtain payment for his merchandise, and he may be obliged, from the force of circumstances, to make a ruinous sacrifice in an operation which had not been undertaken without watchfulness, and

which had been conducted with much circumspection.

Although very serious losses are not of unfrequent occurrence, it is evident that partial losses,—arising from the same combination of circumstances in a modified form—will be much more common. A great proportion of this would be prevented, if New Holland possessed natural productions desired by other countries; for then such produce would at all times act as a surplus fund of wealth, and would tend, in no inconsiderable degree to prevent the possibility of its being unable to pay in specie, or in some other exchangeable commodity for those goods which are imported into it, and which are absolutely requisite for its inhabitants.

In one particular these colonies are very inferior to nearly all other new countries. On the settlement of Europeans in almost every country, having an aboriginal population, with the exception of New Holland, they have derived great advantages in a commercial point of view from the aboriginal inhabitants in bartering trinkets purchased in Europe at little cost, or

articles of service, such as clothing, &c., and receiving in exchange the valuable and costly productions of the country. We need not go farther than the colony at the Cape of Good Hope, for an instance, where the exportation of mercantile commodities, purchased at a ridiculously low rate from the natives in the interior, forms by no means an inconsiderable item. The value of the raw produce shipped from the district of Albany in 1830, was computed to be more than £50,000. The settlements in New Holland derive no advantage of this nature from the intercourse of its settlers with the aborigines, who possess nothing to offer in exchange for the commodities which the Europeans have imported into their country.

It is to be regretted, on other than mercantile grounds, that the Australian natives have no means of furnishing the European settlers with any raw produce, as the intercourse which would take place in consequence, would inevitably tend to produce a good understanding between the two parties; and the fact of the natives being thus treated with, on something like equal

terms, and feeling the benefit of the articles which they purchased, would tend, perhaps, more than any other circumstance to bring about an approach to civilised habits. It is true, that the natives receive various useful articles from the settlers, but they are only given, for the most part as a remuneration for manual labour, to which the aborigines are peculiarly averse. If the natives could furnish the European settlers with any valuable raw produce, they would become of much more consideration than they are at present to the success of the different colonies; for by receiving in exchange the useful productions of other countries, for that portion of the produce of their own which they did not require, they would benefit themselves as well as the colonists—their interests would interweave without having to undergo any labour at all irksome to them.

It is difficult to avoid contrasting the want of mercantile commodities purchasable from the natives, which is experienced in New Holland with the exceedingly valuable productions which are procured from the inhabitants of the Indian

Islands by the European merchants, and is remarkable, that so considerable a difference should exist in the raw produce of countries situated so near together. The one is as conspicuous as well for the quantity and value of its raw produce, and the facility with which it is obtained, as the other for its deficiency of any mercantile commodity, furnished by its aboriginal inhabitants.

Notwithstanding the very large sums which Great Britain has expended in New Holland, she avails herself but very scantily of one of the richest resources of that country. Whilst British money is profusely scattered on the territory of New Holland, she permits other nations to reap the harvest she has cultured at the cost of an immense outlay. The oil fisheries in the seas surrounding New Holland, give employment to many French whalers, and whole fleets of Americans who pursue their profitable trade close to the doors of the English settlers.* It is true, that on some parts of the coast, English fisheries are established, but it is equally true that there are

many hundred miles of coast where an English whaler is never seen, but where French and American whalers abound. Let it not be imagined that this rich field of enterprise is thus, as it were, almost abandoned to our rivals, in consequence of any deficiency of emolument which is attendant on it. The ocean which surrounds New Holland is eminently rich in vast treasures, which merely require to be sought after to yield a large profit to the well skilled adventurer. That wealth which used formerly to constitute, by no means an inconsiderable portion of the riches of England, is now, as far as the rich waters surrounding Australia are concerned, almost resigned, to the eager longings of our rivals.

It surely cannot be a desirable state of things when a nation knows less of her own territory than her rivals, and when other nations avail themselves of the shelter of harbours of which she knows nothing. It is evident when this happens, that something must be wrong. It is an undeniable fact, that the American whalers are very much better acquainted with many

parts of the coast of New Holland than the British. The cause is obvious. So long as the whale fisheries are neglected by us, so long will our knowledge of the coast be inferior to that of those nations who prosecute this highly important branch of national industry.

Without advocating the bounty system of the French, it may be questioned whether much advantage would not accrue from an extension of the whale fishery. It is clear that it must yield a large profit to the private individuals who embark their capital in it, or the Americans would surely not prosecute it with such fleets as they do at the present time. And it is evident that it would be of the highest importance in a national point of view, as it would increase the commercial marine, inure our sailors to a bold and hazardous employment, and furnish our navy with additional means of obtaining seamen of the most hardy and useful character.

The exporters of manufactured goods from England make a point of selecting the inferior articles for shipment to the colonies. In conse-

quence of the various hands through which these goods have to pass before they reach the consumer, and owing also to the length of time which must necessarily elapse before a sale can be effected, the exports from England to the Australian colonies become enormously high priced when they reach the consumer, who happens to reside many miles inland.

In addition to the difficulties arising from the intricacy of the bush, the traveller in the unsettled districts of New Holland has a very serious obstacle to encounter in the change produced in the magnetic needle when in the vicinity of iron stone. However perplexing the country may be, over which a traveller is passing—however much he may be embarrassed by the deviations he is forced to make in consequence of insuperable obstacles, still if his compass remains true, he cannot stray far from his proper course. But when his sheet anchor is taken from him,—when his compass becomes useless, then, indeed, is he at a loss to determine in which direction he should proceed.

In no situation, perhaps, however trying it

may be, is endurance and energy more required than in the exploration of an unknown district in New Holland. The person who takes upon himself the great responsibility of directing the course of a party over a difficult country should be a man possessed of a hardened frame, to enable him to bear the privations to which he must submit, and of a cool head and firmness of purpose, to give him resolution to carry out his views, regardless of the obstacles in his path. If the English people knew the difficulties which obstruct exploring parties, they would not think so lightly as they do at present, of the endurance and courage of the persons who put themselves into situations of extreme danger to be enabled to increase the resources of their country.

The manner in which the compass is affected by the vicinity of iron stone, is a serious disadvantage to the settlers in New Holland, in another respect; serious differences arise as to the true boundaries of a settler's land. By one survey they are placed in one line, and by another they are completely changed. Apart

from the annoyances, which cannot but result to neighbouring settlers from the uncertainty of the true limits of their properties, it is evident that it must produce a highly injurious effect on the cultivation and improvement of the land. That it damps the industry of the settler there can be but little doubt, and although he may not be disposed to cultivate any portion of his land, which is at all liable to be disputed, it is equally certain that such a contingency may arise, which could not but occasion very unpleasant results.

It is surprising that some of the enterprising settlers in New Holland have not introduced the camel, which is capable of doing much work, and of sustaining its powers when deprived of water for a considerable period. The ship of the desert, as it is emphatically called, requires drink on a journey not oftener than once in eight or ten days. It carries amazing loads, and is exceedingly tractable; not only are its powers of carrying remarkable:—the flesh of its young is good—its milk is sweet, and its hair can be made into cloth. In every way does this

most extraordinary and invaluable animal appear adapted to the hot and dry country of New Holland.

For exploring expeditions into the interior, the camel is admirably adapted. An expedition which had camels as beasts of burthen instead of horses or bullocks, would scarcely be compelled to turn back from the want of water, as the leader of an exploration would be attended with very bad fortune indeed, who could not find water within every eighth day, and there would be no difficulty in conveying water sufficient for the party for that time. No inconsiderable advantage in the employment of camels would arise from the leaders being able to strike more boldly into an unknown region, than they can do at present, whilst the chance of procuring water at the end of a day's march is so very uncertain. Almost every expedition proves the existence of good pasture lands in unknown districts, and in a country which consists of so large a quantity of bad and indifferent soil, and whose population is so rapidly on the increase, every circumstance which tends to facilitate the

progress and ensure the safety of exploring expeditions, is of vital importance.

It frequently occurs that a newly discovered district is at first esteemed of more value than when its capabilities become more intimately known. The discoverers are apt to overlook many points of the greatest importance to the successful location of a district. It is of such vital consequence to the prosperity of the inhabitants, to become acquainted with land of good quality, that it is not surprising for persons in the bush, to fancy they have discovered that for which every body is seeking. As all things are excellent by comparison, and land forms no exception to this general rule; persons whilst exploring an unknown portion of country, are very liable to deceive themselves when they enter on a comparatively better land, after having traversed a particularly bad district, and to conclude, somewhat hastily, that it is well adapted for settling. Further knowledge of the real qualities of the district does not at all times bear out the judgment of its discoverers.

To decide on the capabilities of a country which has been known but a short time, requires considerable practical knowledge, and no little cool consideration—for all men are but too much disposed to see things in the light the most profitable to their interests. It will, therefore, be judicious not to form a decided opinion on the value of a district, until further experience confirms the favourable report of its discoverers. Emigrants recently arrived from England should be particularly cautious in acting on the promising accounts of a district furnished by the persons who discovered it, but should wait until its excellence is established by the favourable reports of other parties.

The latest arrivals have to pass the most recently formed stations, and to go farther back in the bush than those who preceded them, and have sometimes, as a matter of necessity, to try their fortunes in a division of the country that is little known. The formation of a station in a district, the advantages and disadvantages of which are not well ascertained, is at all times attended with great hazard and danger. It

requires much more than a casual survey to find out the capabilities of a district. In some portions of the country, poisonous herbs are met with, highly destructive to some kind of stock; and neighbouring tribes of natives differ very materially in every respect; but in nothing, perhaps, more than the feeling with which they regard the Europeans.

Although the openers up of new districts are subject to many serious contingencies, it is an attempt that must be made by some, for the settled districts would soon become inadequate to the wants of the population. The undertaking requires much prudence, and an acquaintance with the habits and manners of the natives, and a familiarity with a bush life, which can scarcely be possessed by any persons who have recently arrived. To ensure success, requires the exertion of all the information of a practical bushman; an extensive knowledge of the diseases of stock, and the proper modes of treatment, a hardy and powerful frame, and skill in the various contrivances which people in the bush adopt to render their existence as bearable

as possible. It can only be begun with a fair chance of success by an old hand; and yet, from the known country being occupied, the fresh arrivals are sometimes compelled to essay the hazardous experiment.

The climate of New Holland appears to agree remarkably well with the constitution of horses, and they thrive much better on bad feeding and little care than in England. It is obvious that a warm climate is much better adapted for horses than a cold one. Although the English race horse is far fleeter than any other in the world, the climate of England is injurious to that animal. The speed and endurance of the English racer is not a consequence of his living in the temperate climate of England, but is owing to the skill displayed in the breeding, feeding, and to the knowledge of the best manner of bringing out his powers, and is effected in defiance of the unfavourable nature of the climate. The home of the horse is in warm countries.

It is to be regretted that horses are worked at so early an age as they are in these colonies. Colts so young that they ought not to have

any weight on their backs, are ridden cattle hunting, which is very severe work, and requires all the bottom of the aged horse. When young animals are ridden in this way, they frequently meet with the most serious accidents in consequence of their not exercising caution when going through a difficult country. From colts being ridden at so early an age, and from their being badly fed and badly groomed and stabled, they become old horses in their constitutions in a very short time, and they do not fill out as they otherwise would. They are used in the colonies when very young from a mistaken idea of economy, the owners considering that their capital is wasting by allowing their young colts to attain maturity previous to their being worked, whereas, there can be no doubt that if their young horses had good feeding, and were not used until they came to their prime, the settlers would get much more work out of the same number of horses than they can possibly do under the present system.

The practice prevails in these colonies of building the walls of dwelling houses of a com-

position of earth and straw mixed with water well beaten up together. There are various ways of making this very useful compound, to which a variety of names has been given. It may, or may not rest on a substratum of stone-work, according to the facilities of the country for obtaining it. It may be worth while to observe that it is judicious for a person building a house of this description to go to some expense to obtain a stone foundation for his earthy abode —and the higher it is carried the better, as it will prevent the walls being affected by the dampness of the ground. There is the wet cob, and the dry cob,—frames may or may not be used; there is the "*pisè*" of France and the "*smalto*" of Italy. This mode of building is very antique, and is met with in some of its varieties in North and South Africa, in Asia and in Europe. The west of England is remarkable for its cob buildings, some of which have a picturesque but a very unsafe appearance, owing to the haste with which the walls have been raised, and which has caused them to fall or to project in a very unsightly and dangerous

manner, over the foundations; others again, in the erection of which, time and care have been used, stand firm for ages, and are as durable as any kind of building.

The great "general" advantage of building in *cob* is, that it is inexpensive, and when carefully done, very lasting. The "local" advantage as applied to New Holland is, that it does not readily take fire; whereas, a wooden house is necessarily, very inflammable. The disadvantage of building in cob in these colonies is, that it harbours vermin, which is a serious objection in a country which swarms with such myriads of crawling things; although this, however, may be partially remedied by forming the lower portion of the wall of stone. When cob walls are well thatched,—which, in Devonshire, is done with carefully selected and combed wheat-straw, locally termed "reed"—have good, sound, and dry foundations, and are not built in a hurry—sufficient time being allowed for each layer to settle before another is placed on it—they will not swerve from the perpendicular, but form

good, solid walls, and last for a considerable time.

In no circumstance tending to the comfort of residents, does an old country exceed a new one more than in the adaptation of the dwelling-houses to the climate. Unfortunately for colonists, they have not the means of building their houses in a manner which would be the most agreeable for them, as their great object, at their outset in colonial life, is not to build a house adapted to the nature of the climate, but to run up one which will cost but a trifling sum, their money being more imperatively required—for the first few years at any rate—in clearing land, in buying stock, and in paying for labour. Houses in hot climates should be large, the rooms lofty, the walls very thick, and stout ceilings, with large open spaces between them, and the roofs so built as to favour the ready escape of the rain, and great care taken that every apartment and every passage is capable of easy ventilation.

The readiness with which they take fire is an insuperable objection to wooden houses in a hot

and dry climate; and brick or stone is undoubtedly the most fitted to be used. It would be advisable—if the means of the builder would permit—to excavate a large underground room, with thick walls on each side, of either stone or brick with a stone or brick floor, to which the family might retire during the scorching hot wind. A large underground cellar will be found highly serviceable; eatables will keep much longer in it than in any place above ground. Fountains were as common in ancient, as they are in modern times, in the houses of the inhabitants of warm climates. Of the houses of ancient Egypt we know but little, of those of Greece somewhat more; but we are enabled to discover all the arrangements of the houses of the Romans from the interesting excavations of Pompeii. The dwellings of the rich were very extensive, and remarkable for their reservoirs and streams of water; but it is to be feared, that a long period will elapse before the dwellers in Australian houses will enjoy the luxury, the comfort, of having fountains in their houses.

When they can have stone court-yards with

fountains of limpid water, they will then be able to hold the scorching heat of summer at something like defiance. As it is at present, in small dwellings, with thin walls, and perhaps no ceiling, they wage an unequal war against the fierce sun. It is the work of time for settlers to throw aside the customs, and habits of their fatherland; and the English emigrant to New Holland carries with him, to a hot and dry continent, the plans and ideas of a humid and cold island.

Whilst speaking of houses, it is necessary to allude to the wooden houses, which are sometimes brought out from England, and are generally made by Manning. They are very expensive, owing not so much to the first cost, as to the freight by sea, and to the carriage by land, from the port at which they are landed to the location of the settler. They are—as all wooden houses are—peculiarly ill adapted to the country, because they cannot be put up if any of the many portions of wood are lost, which is very liable to happen, in which case it is frequently impossible to replace any

of the missing pieces, a carpenter being rarely at hand; and, in consequence, the settler who brings them out, has no protection for some time against either the heat of summer or the heavy rains of winter.

It is much better for the settler to bring out a large *double* tent, and if his family be large, and his means commensurate, two double tents. Now, a good *double* tent, when made of good stuff and properly pitched—with a ditch around to drain off the rain, and sheltered against the prevailing winds—is by no means a bad habitation for a man who is able to rough it. A tent is inexpensive, is very portable, and is put up in a short time, only requiring a pole. Oil-cloth, also, makes a very good temporary house, and can be put up in a short time; it is also impervious to the rain. It may appear a very easy matter to put up one of Manning's houses, when the frame of it is lying in his workshop, and the way in which each part fits into the other is explained by one of his workmen; but it is a very difficult affair, indeed, to put it up in the Australian bush, with no one to assist

who has any knowledge of the art of carpentering. On the other hand, no one can be at a loss in putting up a tent.

After the settler has lived some little while in the tent, and taken sufficient time to look about him, and has satisfied himself as to the best situation on his land for his future abode —he may begin building his house, which should be of stone, if there is any near, or brick, if there is brick-earth, or of cob. Now, either of these is far better than one of Manning's houses. In the selection of the site of the house, much care is required. It should be so situated as to have water close at hand, and at the same time so far from the river—when the site is on the banks of one—as to insure its not being liable to injury during floods in the rainy season; it should be sheltered from the prevailing winds, and admit of a complete ventilation of the whole house; it should be placed as near as may be in the centre of the land belonging to the settler, and close to his best land. Many are the inconveniences—sometimes of a serious

nature—to which a settler subjects himself, by being hasty in selecting the site for his dwelling house. The ease with which a tent may be moved is no mean consideration to the settler; while there is so much difficulty in putting up one of Manning's houses, that the settler—deficient of labour—shrinks from putting himself to the trouble and expense of removing it to more favourable situations, harassed as he is with so many other considerations, while a tent will be always useful, even when its first employment may be usurped by a more goodly edifice of stone or other solid material.

CHAPTER VI.

"We who live
On the bold marge of ocean, bless the mild
And happy climate where no fierce extremes
Of cold and heat annoy—"

CARRINGTON.

NEW HOLLAND is remarkable for its riches in every department of natural history. The vast amount of varieties in created nature first seen in Australasia, with habits of a widely different character to any that had previously been witnessed, marks this country as one peculiarly interesting. Taking into consideration the amount of original information that has been added to our stock of knowledge during the comparatively few years that any number of Europeans have been settled on its shores; it must be conceded that the inhabited districts of New Holland may

challenge comparison with any portion of the world of equal extent. Without stopping to advert, in any lengthened degree, to the new animals that have been added to our catalogue, it is sufficient to allude to the habits of those animals to show that this country is peculiarly rich in productions unknown to all other portions of the universe. Judging from the experience of the past, with reference to the large addition in every kingdom of natural history, we must conclude that the further acquisitions which will be consequent on a more intimate knowledge of this immense territory are almost beyond the reach of human conception. Africa, certainly, from the time of Pliny, has had the reputation of being a land of wonders, (*Africa semper aliquid novi affert*) and of constantly producing a succession of new and singular objects. This character, however, might with more propriety be applied to Australasia.

Emigrants from the rural districts of England, are struck by the want of odoriferous plants and singing birds; there being but a very few sweet

smelling flowers, and a small number of birds, which make a chirping noise. When the settler abandons the land of his nativity, for a permanent residence in New Holland, he leaves, for ever leaves, behind him, the delicious carollings of the birds that hail the glorious sun, or pour the witching vesper lay; and he seeks in vain in the land of his adoption, for the sweet blossoms of his native village. No smiling knot of early primroses upon the warm luxuriant southern bank, appears; no sweet honeysuckle nor perfumed violet cheer his heavy heart with their grateful presence; no morning lark eddying in circles in his upward flight, to pour out his adoration of his Creator, from his silvery throat, awakes him. At night, no more he hears the delightful warblings of the queen of songsters—the charming nightingale. The hoarse croaking of the offensive bull-frog, and the incessant buzzing of the hideous mosquitoe, he takes in exchange for the gladdening tones of England's fairy songsters.

Many fruits grow and flourish in these colonies which can be reared in England only when they

are housed, when means are taken to temper the keenness of the winter's blast, and when the temperature of the air is increased by artificial contrivances. It is a matter of doubt, however, whether anything is gained by the inhabitants of New Holland in this particular; for many fruits which are admirably adapted to the temperate and moist climate of Great Britain, either do not come to perfection, or will not grow at all in the dry hot atmosphere of NewHolland. A decision on the relative advantages and disadvantages will depend in this instance on the tastes of the individual; and in arriving at a conclusion on this point, the native of Great Britain must not forget to bear in mind, that every one is apt to attach somewhat more than its intrinsic value to that which is beyond his reach. For example—the Englishman will be in danger of forming a highly favourable opinion of the capabilities of that country for the growth of fruit, where the orange and the grape flourish and yield abundantly in the open air; but it will do him no harm to remember, that if the Australian colonists gain the orange

and the grape, they lose the apple, the currant, the gooseberry, and that most delicious of all fruits, the strawberry.

As it is with fruits, so it is with flowers. The native flowers are many of them exceedingly beautiful, and the geranium is almost a weed; but still very many of the sweetest and most beautiful English flowers will not grow in the climate of New Holland. The native flowers are, with very few exceptions, perfectly inodourous, and they gladden the eye with their grateful presence but for a short period. The dreary wastes in New Holland are relieved by the varied tints of the native flowers, in the spring time only. But few persons, I apprehend, would estimate the beautiful but scentless, native flowers of New Holland beyond the more quiet-tinted, but sweet smelling flowers of Great Britain. Even were they on a par in point of beauty and fragrance, the English flowers continue blooming a great part of the year, whilst the dull monotony of the arid scrub of Australia is relieved for only a short time by beautifully-formed and exquisitely-tinted, but

inodorous flowers. With all the charm of form, the Australian flowers must yield to the delicious fragrance and simple colouring of the flowers of the charming hedge rows of "Merry England."

Those English emigrants who proceed to New Holland without having previously resided in a warm climate, will be amazed at the numbers of mice which they will find in their adopted country. In regions situated in the temperate zone, these troublesome little wretches can be kept from multiplying beyond a certain point, but in warm countries they increase in an incredible manner in spite of all endeavours to limit their numbers; and they propagate their species with such extreme rapidity that cats and traps are held in defiance. In addition, the English mouse has been imported into the country, having been brought in packages of merchandise, so that there is the European as well as the Australian varieties of this mischievous animal. So tenaciously do they remain in the habitations of man, that any attempt to destroy all that infest a house may be given up as hopeless. To

an inhabitant of a temperate climate, it may appear somewhat absurd to be annoyed by a few mice. But when a house is overrun by them, when everything is nibbled, and when they maintain their ground in defiance of every effort to destroy them, it is really a most serious and disagreeable nuisance.

In addition to these destructive occupants of their dwellings, the settlers in New Holland are tormented with immense numbers of fleas, and bugs. Now either of them is sufficient as an annoyance, but when the two are combined, it passes endurance. Nothing can prevent their unceasing attacks. No caution can hinder their admittance into a dwelling, and when once in, no cleanliness can remove them. The fleas are said to breed in the sand. The hideous, filthy bug crawls into every little crevice in the walls, which position it retains in spite of every endeavour to remove it, and from which it issues to feast on the blood of its hapless victims. The nostrums which have the power of effectually removing bugs in England lose their efficacy in New Holland, and the reason is suffi-

ciently apparent; no preparation—however powerful and pungent it may be,—being competent to act through a wall.

But the annoyance caused by fleas and bugs, and the destruction which mice—to say nothing of rats—produce, sink into insignificance before the ravages of the white ant. This, which differs in its appearance and its habits from the common ant, is indefatigable in its wasteful career, and scarcely anything comes amiss to the little cormorant. Its powers of existence are such, that no application appears to have any effect on it. It works in silence, but without cessation; and boxes, clothes, everything in short are destroyed by this expensive pest.

In the summer months the atmosphere of New Holland is loaded with innumerable descriptions of flies and mosquitoes, and there is then the greatest difficulty in preserving meat from the attacks of the flies. Unless it is consumed almost immediately after the animal is killed, it is nearly certain to be fly blown. The slightest aperture in the covering is infallibly discovered, and the quantity is really surprising.

which is destroyed in a short time. A good, perhaps the best, method of preserving meat from the attacks of the flies, is to hang it up in the sun, so that no portion may be in the shade. It detracts from the external appearance of the meat, but the solar action forms a thick crust, as it were, through which the flies cannot penetrate, and they cannot act on it while exposed to the sun's rays. With respect to mosquitoes, it is enough to remark, that a man whose skin is of ordinary thickness, suffers indescribable torments whilst these horrible insects are feeding on his luckless person. People whose skins are delicate (and consequently ladies) suffer infinitely more than others, although all are affected, with the exception indeed of those who have skins of the thickness of a rhinoceros' hide.

It has been erroneously said, that there is no venom in any living thing in this country; but there are venomous serpents in abundance. It is considered by some settlers, that one reason which the natives have for setting fire to the bush, is to rid themselves of the serpents which

they cannot destroy in any other manner. The natives are exceedingly frightened at all kinds of serpents, and no consideration will induce them to approach one which is poisonous.

Mechanics who emigrate to these colonies from England, will be surprised at the manner in which various kinds of work are performed. They will, at first, be inclined to think that the colonial expedients are rough and badly contrived, but after a time, the conviction of their utility will be forced on them. They will find that in a country where the price of labour is so great a consideration, it is not advisable to give the same finish to work, as is done in an old country thickly peopled, and that the rude contrivances of which at first they thought so little are—although of a rough construction—admirably adapted for the uses to which they are applied, and more durable than if firmly wrought. Mechanics who may have been first-rate workmen in England, will find many things in the different trades as applied to these colonies, which they will have to learn.

It is extremely hazardous for a member of any

of the learned professions, or of any of the higher branches of art, who is dependent on his vocation for a subsistence, to exile himself to any of these colonies. A certain number of practitioners in each of the learned professions, and of tradesmen skilled in the higher branches of art is required; whilst those who happen to come to the colonies at a time when the wants of the colonists are supplied in respect to those branches which they have studied, will be obliged to turn their attention to some other means of earning a subsistence. Those who happen to arrive at a fortunate period, when an opening exists, will receive a very ample remuneration, while, on the contrary, if their arrival has been badly timed, they must,—however opposite it may be to their previous habits and inclinations,—put their shoulders to the wheel without loss of time, and labour at some other occupation. If, instead of adopting this plan, they wait for the occurrence of vacancies, they will most assuredly—seeing that house rent and all the necessaries of life are very high,—soon become irretrievably involved.

The only persons who are, at all times, certain to find a ready market for their abilities and talents, are labourers and artisans accustomed to rough work, such as blacksmiths, carpenters, and masons. These always receive very high wages. Although the classes just now mentioned obtain much higher wages, their occupations require a vast deal more toil in this hot climate than in Europe, and they assert they are obliged to use stimulants to keep up their energies. Yet, notwithstanding the large remuneration which they receive, their condition in life, if they are encumbered with many young children unable to labour for their existence—is in no way improved, if, indeed, it is not made worse by their secession from the mother country.

An industrious sober labourer, or mechanic, with no family, or with children, who are old enough to be able to work, will do well in this country. But will not such a person also do well in England? Is not honest industry rewarded in one as well as in the other? The persons who make books on these colonies,

insist strongly and declaim loudly on the circumstance, that industrious labourers, who have the fortitude to abstain from drink, are capable of improving their condition. Did it never occur to those writers to inquire whether it were possible for such a desirable consummation to be effected in the mother country? He must be indeed a casual observer, and must keep his eyes obstinately closed to what is daily passing around him, if he cannot bring to his recollection, in the despised, the rejected mother country, numerous cases of industrious, sober men, who have elevated themselves by their exertions from the condition of journeymen to that of masters; and, instead of being hired, have made themselves hirers.

Great stress has been laid on the circumstance that large fortunes have been made in these colonies; and if large fortunes could be made only when the mass of the population was in a thriving state, the circumstance might be of some moment. So far, however, from this holding good, large colossal fortunes are not unfrequently — perhaps, most generally — ac-

quired by the loss of the many for the gain of a few. To prove the truth of this assertion will be no great difficulty,—it does not require a journey beyond the sound of Bow-bells. What body of men is there in trade in the British metropolis—of the same numbers—who are so wealthy as the licensed victuallers? — and, amongst them, who possess the greater quantity of money—the keepers of quiet, respectable houses, which afford comfortable homes to the weary traveller, or the occupiers of the gaudy buildings which bring disgrace and ruin in the bosom of the poor man's family? The answer must be conclusive. There are few more wealthy tradesmen in London than the brewers and distillers. Again, in the first settlement of a colony, who is it that acquires property? It is not the quiet, hard-working farmer who speedily acquires property, but the cunning trader, who, when the *bonâ fide* settler, the tiller of the land, gets into his debt—which he can scarcely avoid doing before his crops come up, unless a person of good property—levies a terrible tax on the accommodation he affords. The man who

comes out to these colonies to attempt to acquire an honourable independence by the sweat of his brow, will meet with obstacles of no ordinary magnitude at every step.

Many of the large colonial fortunes that have served as decoys in alluring emigration from Great Britain, are more apparent than real. A man may possess large tracts of country in New Holland without being enabled to effect a sale, in the colony, of any portion—*because* his property may consist of such soils as to be totally valueless for any purpose. Indeed, the only chance which many large owners of land in New Holland have of effecting a sale, is, to throw their property on the English market, where they may possibly discover parties weak enough to become purchasers of worthless sand or iron-stone. It has an imposing sound, for a man to be able to assert that he can stand on a certain hillock in one of the Australian colonies, and see nothing but his own property. It is magniloquent to exclaim, "I am lord of all I survey." But this, however, is thought much less of in the waste of New Holland, than in the

rich and fertile land of England, *because* men who are acquainted with the nature of by far the largest portion of Australia, know that the wide extent of wilderness surveyed from even a lofty eminence, may not be worth looking at; and that a man may be the owner of thousands of acres in New Holland, but excessively poor withal.

Very many of those persons who have done well in New Holland by pastoral pursuits have accumulated money, in consequence of their having been at a very slight expense in providing themselves personally with the necessaries of life. In whatever manner a settler in the bush of Australia may have been brought up, he is compelled to adopt the same mode of living as the settlers around him, because the trouble and the expense of procuring the comforts of civilized life are so great as to put them beyond his reach. There are but few people in a highly civilized country who are aware of the small number of the actual necessaries of life—the supporters of mere existence. However badly circumstanced a resident in an

old country may be, there are many things which he regards as necessary, but which the settler in the Australian-bush is unable to obtain. Having seen something of poverty in England, and something of the mode of living of settlers in the bush of New Holland, it is my firm conviction that if people in England in indifferent circumstances were to exist on the same scanty fare, and debar themselves from the same comforts which Australian settlers are forced to do, they could scarcely fail from saving largely from their incomes.

There are difficulties of a sufficiently harassing nature to be overcome, in all countries, by the unfortunate individual who is not able to meet his engagements; but in a colony they are magnified a hundred fold. This is no more than might be expected, when it is remembered that money returns a much greater interest in the colonies than in the mother country, and that, consequently, the possession of it in the former is more advantageous—brings to its owners more of worldly benefit—than in the latter. The weight of the interest is an incubus, which

bears the borrower down, which clings to him with a tenacious grasp, and which can be shaken off only by the most violent and long continued efforts. It is no wonder, then, that a man who is in bad odour with the capitalists,—who have amassed their wealth, "*rem-quocumque modo-rem*," by administering with a sparing hand to the wants of the necessitous,—and who must raise a certain sum at a certain day, is obliged to make a terrible sacrifice for the temporary accommodation. Most persons know, either from experience or from report, that a very large interest indeed is required, even in England, under these circumstancee; but people at home would be startled at the enormous losses which are sustained by the trembling debtor in the colonies.

The inhabitants of this new country are free from all local superstitions: neither haunted houses nor ghostly roads are ever heard of. The people are too much occupied in attempting to make money, to attend to such profitless fancies. Young countries differ from the old in no one particular so much as in afford-

ing no time honored fables of the unhallowed dead to harrow up the soul; with them the past is nothing,—the present taxes all their energies.

In old countries, most persons have a sufficiently high opinion of the importance of "self;" but in young colonies this feeling is paramount —every one is fighting for a living—each one, elbowing his neighbour, tries to get on by pushing him back, and if discovered to have acted not in the most honorable way, it passes off as the colonial manner of doing business, and there is an end of the matter. It has been said, that by adopting a good term for any imperfection, a great deal is done; thus, when a man becomes rich by a reckless indifference as to the means he uses to attain that desirable end, it is said he has acted in a manner perfectly colonial. When a man, previously gloated with wealth, induces the young and inexperienced by unfair accounts of the advantages of a property to purchase at a high price that which can be of no use to any one,—this again is strictly colonial. In fact, the word colonial is applied to transactions

which in an old country would be considered as almost amounting to swindling.

The manner in which wealth has been amassed is never inquired into; it is sufficient that it exists to secure importance to its possessor, and for him to look down with unfeigned contempt on his less fortunate, because more scrupulous rivals. In young countries, the only subject which is considered worthy of thought is the manner of making money—every one is more or less, directly or indirectly, engaged in some commercial transaction which may or may not be adapted to the means of the speculator. This mania for speculation is turned to good account by the experienced. They originate something, offering, as a matter of course, almost a certainty of immense gain, which is eagerly caught up by those who, younger in colonial matters, endeavour to imitate their successful neighbours, but find when too late that they have timed it badly, and that the originators have disposed at a high price of their interests, and have left to others the loss of the undertaking. Thus do the old colonials rise on

the ruins of the inexperienced; for, regardless of everything but a desire to become rich, they leave no stone unturned to effect this desirable consummation; and, as may naturally be supposed, after some disappointments, they manage to attain their end. Any attempt at intellectual refinement is quite out of the question. Money is the god of the colonies, and is followed and worshipped with a perseverance and an indifference to every other consideration almost beyond belief. Under such circumstances, it will be easily credited that the gentility affected by these aristocrats of the purse is somewhat offensive.

Persons may occasionally be met with, in some out of the way spot, who have seen better days—frequently, retired officers, who have been led to believe that New Holland is peculiarly well adapted for an officer, with a large family and small means, to retire to. With no chance of rising in his profession, and a certainty of increase in his family, such a man leaves merry England, rich in the gifts of nature, for a paradise of sand, — in short, he emigrates.

During the passage he is buoyed up by the pictures drawn by the fertile imaginations of his fellow-voyagers, of the richness and beauties of their adopted country, as they fondly term it; and the poor fellow indulges in day-dreams of the comfort and independence which, by one wise act, furthered by some little after-exertion of his own, he has insured to his family. This state of self-congratulation continues up to about a week or a fortnight prior to his arrival at the destined port. Then, indeed, there flash across him certain misgivings as to the propriety of his conduct. The sight of the land, however, cheers him, and he tries to fancy a resemblance between it and some well-known prospect of his native country.

The emigrant, soon after his landing, cannot fail to feel sick at heart at the sight of the interminable sand and iron-stone. He had not been led to fancy that his adopted country, to which he had voyaged to seek

> "A warmer world, a milder clime,
> A home to rest, a shelter to defend,
> Peace and repose."

was of a sterile description. As, however, the true state of the case opens itself to his view, he will discover that it is, perhaps, of all other countries the least likely to find "peace and repose." He will be told of savage attacks made by bushrangers or the natives, and of butcheries committed by them in the most ruthless manner, sparing neither sex nor age, murdering alike the mother and the infant. Accounts of such atrocities will assail him on every side, and unless he happen to be somewhat of a fire-eater, he will come to the conclusion, that there is plenty of work ready made to his hands to defend his shelter, or rather, shed which will form his home in the wilderness. Let us leave him, however, to get through as he best may, the annoyances, disappointments, and extortionate charges consequent on landing, and before he can find a place on which to locate.

After a martyrdom of suspense, the situation is finally agreed on; the settler takes his family and all his effects—at a great cost—on to his property, which he finds so overrun with

bush and trees that he decides with difficulty as to which is the most eligible situation for a temporary residence. This, however, is determined, and after putting up his canvass tent, the poor fellow takes his first night in the bush. If it come on to blow, accompanied with rain, —and when it does blow in this country, it is in earnest,—his tent will most probably be blown down, and everybody completely saturated and chilled with cold. United, however, in one common object, they set to work to clear the land, and to get a little under cultivation. Supposing them to have chosen a good situation, on the banks of a river, for instance, having some good land, they may find that it will not bear the expense of clearing. This conviction, most probably only crosses their minds after their substance is expended, and they have not the means left of removing; there they are obliged to remain, ekeing out a miserable and scanty subsistence, surrounded by savage tribes, each at war with the other, and charged an immense price for everything they require.

A happy thought strikes the father,—he will

raise money on his property by mortgage; this he accomplishes after some difficulty, at a very high rate of interest: for a time his prospects are a little brightened, he is enabled to purchase a few of the comforts of life for his family; he clears more land, things go on well until the time arrives for paying the interest to the mortgagee; he then becomes completely broken in spirit, for he finds it impossible to make both ends meet, encumbered as he is, with the payment of a heavy interest. He discovers that it is very possible for the owner of land to be obliged to pay a heavy rent, in the shape of interest for money advanced on the security of property,—which money he must have at any sacrifice. In this sketch, we have supposed some of the greatest difficulties to have been overcome; we have taken for granted that the spot selected is not entirely composed of sand, but that there is some good land, that the country has been surveyed, and that the marks of the surveyors have been discovered.

If a settler be unfortunate in the selection of his land, and happen to choose that kind of soil

which far predominates over every other, then will his sufferings be increased tenfold; he will run his career sooner, because the land, or rather the sand, can only produce after plentiful manuring, and this he cannot, of course, obtain. Some persons who have heard of the large fortunes acquired by convicts, may be disposed to doubt the faithfulness of the view just taken. That convicts have acquired wealth there is no question. But it should be asked—Was it by following the honourable and peaceful employment of the farmer? They made money, when convicts, or others equally devoid of scruples, only could have done so.

Let us take another case, that of a young man who leaves England in the morning of life, his youthful energy supported by glowing descriptions of his future home. He emigrates with the firm determination of working hard, and after suffering some privations, to return to his native country, if not a rich, at least an independent, man. We will leave him during his voyage, indulging in the belief of the beauties and fertility of the country to which he is

emigrating. On his arrival at his destined port, he is bewildered in his enquiries as to which is the most advantageous situation for a person to settle in; not from a difficulty in choosing fit land, but from an impossibility in selecting out of so many offers, of what, he is assured, is capital land. He perhaps arrives at the conclusion, that it would be as well for him to judge for himself, and accordingly starts for the bush.

Now does he begin to perceive the nature of the country. When living on salt pork and damper, with the sun darting his burning rays on his head, he searches, but in vain, for water to quench his distressing thirst. On viewing the land, he is fully convinced of the general sterility of the country, and returns rather less eager to leave the comforts of the inn for the discomforts and perils of the remote wilderness.

Thus does his own inclination to remain in a place where he has a good roof over his head, rather than brave the dangers and hardships of the bush, and the difficulty of selecting any quantity of good land, keep him in the town until he

has wasted a considerable portion of his substance, and until he is at last compelled to leave it. I really do not consider it possible, that any young person can undergo a more trying ordeal. Many become lost, ruined, to the uttermost: some few become steeled to the difficulties that they see they must undergo—get into the colonial way of doing things and thrive.

Persons at home, of an ardent temperament, may possess imaginations so fertile, as to fancy that living in the bush is exceedingly romantic, and by no means disagreeable—that it is, in fact, a gypsy party, only on rather a large scale. They have read of the delightful climate, of the bounding of the kangaroo, and of magnificent park-like scenery, and that nature is over bounteous in her productions in this country. When the eatables consist of salt pork and greasy damper, and the memory of the jolly god is quaffed in cold tea, made with water termed by courtesy, brackish, but which in reality is salt, and of an execrable odour, one is apt to call to remembrance, with something of regret, a pic-nic in some sequestered nook of

England. I am free to confess that my imagination has never relieved me from the miserable feeling of having the roof of the mouth and palate coated with salt, and nothing but brackish water to allay an irresistible thirst. In fact, imagination and romance are all very well in their way, but they have no legitimate connection with every-day life, and most assuredly not with an existence in the Australian wilderness.

If the cost of the passage out is felt as a burthen, the enormous charges made by every body when the expectant emigrant lands with a numerous family, must be considered as excessive. Nothing strikes one, on first landing, more than the exceedingly high charges of all landlords and boarding-house keepers. One has to pay more at a petty inn, or rather public-house, although dignified by the appellation of "hotel," than at a first-class inn in England. It often happens that the business of the hostelry is done in a slovenly manner, and as to civility, it is quite out of the question. When the settler returns to the sea-port, to

report to his family his opinion of the land over which he has passed, he too often discovers, much to his disappointment, that the expenses necessarily incurred are so great, as to render any further voyagings in search of the real Utopia, completely beyond his means, and he is hence obliged to remain where he is.

The man of wealth will find New Holland a rich field for his operations: he will obtain interest on unquestionable security, far exceeding anything he could hope for in an old country. The cause has been already shown: so many persons commence undertakings which they are unable to accomplish in consequence of the high price of labour, that the money in the market is easily caught up at a high rate of interest, and, generally speaking, money is the best merchandise.

On the other hand, the man whose wealth consists of a pair of brawny arms, and who has lived by the sweat of his brow, one who can complete a hard day's work under a scorching sun, is well fitted for colonization. This man, especially if he be a clever, sober, artificer will

do well, but not to the extent which the price of labour will lead him to anticipate, as he will have to pay enormously for everything he purchases; still, if a sober, industrious man, (unless burthened with a large family of young children) his situation in life will be much improved, and his comfort much increased.

The man who aspires to trace the works of his Creator in all their varieties, so as to raise himself from the grovelling condition of a mere animal to a communion with his Almighty Maker, by ascending from the examination of created nature, to a knowledge of the use which each individual fills in the great design of the universe, will hold this country in high esteem. The continent of New Holland, sterile and unattractive as it is in other respects, is to him a country which possesses more attractions than any other; it is a wide expanse of wonders. Every footstep is marked by the attainment of fresh knowledge. Boundless as is the country, unlimited is the learning which the student of natural history may glean from its otherwise barren soil. To the young naturalist who is

ardent to distinguish himself in the science to which he has devoted himself, Australasia offers advantages possessed by no other country. Nature appears to have been guided in the formation of the creatures which she placed in this vast territory, by none of those laws which are found in other parts of the world to have been inviolate. And, however unpropitious to the labours of others, the dreary desolation of Australasia may be, the student in any department of natural history, will reap in this land of evergreens, his most attractive and most enduring laurels. If there is any body of people to whom these colonies are less adapted than any other, it is the class of poor gentlemen, who, possessed of fine sensibilities, are deficient of "means," and are wanting alike of the energy and capability of elbowing their way in a new country.

The reason is obvious why the colonies abound with persons who have not been successful in the mother country. It is scarcely to be expected that a person who is succeeding in his vocation, will put himself to the incon-

venience and risk (to say nothing of the expense) of voyaging to the antipodes, to have the chance of doing only that which he is already accomplishing at home. Hence it follows that the colonies are deficient of men who have made money, and this again is the reason that money carries so large an interest.

Notwithstanding the great heat and the scarcity of water, I have never heard of a case of hydrophobia in this country. Africa, we are told, is entirely free from this distressing malady, although public troops of dogs are maintained in all the large towns of Egypt and Barbary to do the work of scavengers. The paucity of our information of this deplorable disease is generally admitted; and, it is evident, that what is considered as the cause of its existence, can have no general influence on either its formation or its propagation; for, if it have any, it must be merely local. Great heat and want of water are supposed to produce canine madness in Great Britain. But why a high temperature and a scarcity of water should create a disease in one place, whilst they

do not exercise the same pernicious influence in another, where the alleged causes are more severe, remains to be explained. The inference to be drawn must, I apprehend, be that little as our knowledge of this formidable disease is considered to be; we do not even know as much as we think we do, and that, in point of fact, we are entirely ignorant of the combination of circumstances which produces or propagates it.

Freedom from disease is another recommendation, much vaunted by those persons who desire to cause emigration from Europe to these colonies; and, to prove the correctness of the position, they instance the cases of persons who enjoy that health in the one place which they vainly sought after in the other. It must be clear to every one that the dry, hot climate of Australasia must be highly advantageous to those who suffer from some kinds of chest disease; but it is equally clear, that it does not approach that exemption from grievous diseases of which so much has been noised abroad.

Possessing a climate, admirably suited for

some thoracic diseases, it is as ill fitted for those who labour under any complaint of the stomach or bowels. Rheumatism is prevalent. The teeth decay much sooner than in England, and this defect mars the appearance of the (in other respects) Australian beauties. Headaches are much more frequent than in the temperate climate of Europe. Again, it has been said by medical men, that in particular divisions of the country, fever is unknown. Shortly after my arrival in one of those districts, it occurred to me to witness cases of fever, as clear and well marked as I ever met with. Thus it is that the prejudices of a man run riot with his better judgment. It has been stated that child-birth in this land is not accompanied with those dangers which surround the mother in other countries. It has been said, that "Parturition with the female sex is expeditious and safe; being accomplished by the efforts of nature alone, within from three to six hours." It occurred to me, during the first four months of my residence in one of the Australian colonies, to attend two

cases of parturition, as difficult and dangerous as could be encountered in midwifery: during the same period there was a third case, equally dangerous, but which I did not witness. When the population of this colony, which has fewer inhabitants than any other, is taken into consideration, at the period just now referred to, it will, I think, be clear that parturition is *not* at all times expeditious and safe.

Inflammation of the eyes readily passes on to highly destructive ulceration. All external sores require very constant care to prevent the deposition of maggots. The allowing a wound to remain uncovered for a very short space of time is hazardous, as there are myriads of flies ready to settle on any abraded surface. If not disturbed, the maggots would, of course, go on to the destruction of life. Although the heat in summer is scorching, and scarcely tolerable, the winds in winter are at times piercing and very cold: from this it results that catarrhs or colds (as they are commonly called) are not by any means uncommon. The climate is peculiarly fatal to all disposed to intemperance,

and the extreme heat of the merciless summer sun produces excruciating headaches.

If those who are so loud in their praises of the climate of New Holland, really believe that man is less liable to disease in this country than in other parts of the world, they have it in their power to *prove* the truth of their assertions of its salubrity, by appending to their opinions, a view of reality in the shape of a well authenticated statistical detail.

One cause of the reputed salubrity of the climate arises from the fact, that a large number of the emigrants to these colonies consists of people who have led irregular lives, or have lived in some one of the many overgrown towns of Great Britain. Very considerable numbers emigrate from the Leviathan London, the receptacle of every possible impurity of atmosphere, whose only chance of obtaining a mouthful of air at all freed from noxious corruption, is during a residence of a week or fortnight at Greenwich, Gravesend, or some other equally salubrious and fashionable watering place. It is certainly not to be wondered at, that such people

should experience benefit to their bodily ailments during a first voyage, when everything around is wonderful, and bears the charm of novelty. It would be strange, indeed, if the effect were otherwise. It requires no great exertion of medical knowledge or professional acumen to foretell, that the breathing for four months the purest and most invigorating air will have a beneficial effect. It would be manifestly unfair to compare the healthiness of a thinly-peopled country with the sickness of densely crowded English towns; and it will indeed, be strange, if it can be proved that man enjoys more health and lives longer in the New World than in an agricultural district of England.

A most serious misconception exists, that the temperature of New Holland is eminently pleasant,—neither too hot nor too cold, but as near as possible the happy medium between the two extremes. But little do those, who entertain such an opinion, comprehend the sufferings of the settlers under a withering, scorching sun.

In some of the hottest portions of the world, and in the most sultry months, the great heat of the sun is moderated by a succession of light flying clouds which, by interrupting the sun's rays, afford a great relief to the inhabitants. But in Australia, the rays of its powerful, burning, summer sun shoot down on the heads of its inhabitants, unmodified by any interposition, no passing cloud intervening to diminish its destructive influence. The sky is cloudless, and the heat is dreadful. In many hot climates the changes of temperature are slow and gradual, but in these colonies the temperature is liable to great and sudden changes, which are exceedingly trying to a weakly constitution; and were it not for the extreme dryness of the atmosphere, the Australian colonies could be no other than remarkably unhealthy.

As it is, the changes of the temperature take place so suddenly, that it is impossible for the inhabitants to clothe themselves in a way calculated to protect them against either the heat or the cold; for a morning exceedingly cold and pleasant may usher in an excessively hot

day, and a very hot day is frequently followed by a cold night. It not unfrequently happens that several cold days, with bleak winds, come immediately after a continuance of hot weather, and oppressively sultry days are often followed by exceedingly close and hot nights. The twilight, so agreeable in England, is scarcely known in Australia, the dark night —when there is no moon—following close on the setting of the sun; and when there is any twilight, it is of very short continuance.

In winter the weather is very changeable. Storms, with much rain, last about two or three days, and are succeeded by, perhaps, a week of the finest weather possible. During the storms in winter, the rain falls much heavier than in England; the wind is cold, and is severely felt after the relaxing heats of summer; but while the fine weather lasts, the air is balmy in the mornings, the heat at mid-day not oppressive, and the evenings are exceedingly pleasant. Some days in the Australian winter are most delightful. There is then a charming freshness in the atmosphere, and the vegetables

sprout up after the first showers, in a manner most refreshing to the eye, accustomed to the parched-up soil. Indeed, the climate of Australia, during the fine weather in winter, cannot be excelled by any in the world. A traveller who happened to remain a short time in these colonies, during some portion of the winter, without experiencing any of the severe storms which occur at that season, would pronounce the climate most delightful, as he would feel all the purity of the atmosphere, all the clearness of its Italian sky, without experiencing the dreadful heat of its summer sun.

In consequence of the extreme heat during the summer, and the rapid changes of temperature, the wear and tear of the constitution is considerable. In some seasons, the thermometer shows, perhaps, a larger extent of change in temperature, during the twenty-fours hours. than in any other part of the world. This variation, added to the amazing heat of its long summer, sufficiently accounts for the early age at which the constitutions of persons, born and bred in this climate, begin to give way.

As it is with vegetable, so is it with animal, life,—the quickness of growth can only be equalled by the rapidity of decay. Children shoot up into men and women with singular rapidity, but their constitutions cannot long withstand the inroads of the climate.

The general result of my experience is, that the climate of Australia is weakening and enervating, and adapted only for those who suffer from some kinds of chest disease, or have destroyed their constitutions by a residence in some withering deadly land,—*haud inexpertus loquor*. The heat is rendered more oppressive by the frequency of bush fires, which happen in summer. When near a bush fire, one feels, in addition to the extraordinary heat, as if about to be suffocated. The sea breeze, or doctor as it is emphatically called, so much sighed after, blows before it the wretched heat of the land wind, but lassitude it cannot dispel; the sea breeze, cooling to a certain extent, but imparting no energy.

It is a fashion to rail against the climate of England. Persons who have visited sunnier

climes, paint in glowing colours the beauties they have seen, and describe in rapturous language the bright wonder of the cloudless sky. If travellers saw nothing wonderful, they might as well remain at home. Few voyagers like to acknowledge the expenses and the annoyances to which they have subjected themselves, without pretending to have seen something more wonderful than their neighbours; and hence, although delighted at returning to their native land, they amaze their hearers by their wonderful narrations. Ignorant of the beauties of their native soil, they travel thousands of miles to gaze on sights, which for beauty or interest, are not to be compared with those of their own country. Having been broiled by the fiery influence of a southern sun, they descant around the wintry hearth on the discomfort of the English climate, regardless of their sufferings when scorching in hotter regions. They might with truth exclaim "*Ea suboculis posita negligimus: proximorum incuriosi, longinqua sectamur.*"

Much as the mild, the temperate climate of England has been vilified, it may be doubted

whether many of the good qualities of its inhabitants are not attributable to its influence. It is not so hot as to hinder the greatest amount of exertion, either mental or physical; neither is it subjected to extreme cold. It enjoys the bracing vigour of northern regions with the mildness of the temperate zone.

CHAPTER VII.

"The parent look'd
At life's horizon, and beheld it clear,
Nor dream'd of gathering storm; he ventur'd much,
Too much, of Hope on the frail bark—and, ah!
The wreck was total!"

THOSE emigrants who leave England to settle in the colonies, on account of any supposed or actual grievance, will discover, soon after their landing, that there are not wanting numerous cases of persons who consider themselves hardly dealt by. Any member of society at home, feeling himself aggrieved, enjoys more facilities for making his case known, and a greater chance of speedy redress, than a settler does in any colony. In Great Britain, if on examination it appears that an injury has been sustained,

the sufferer is either put in possession of his just rights, or he knows at once that his claims will not be attended to; whereas in the colonies the case is wholly different. The responsibility of deciding, is referred from one authority to another, from the Governor of the colony to the Colonial Office, and not unfrequently from the Home minister back again to the colonial government; judgment being thus suspended for a lengthened period.

The only channel of redress open to colonists is by means of a memorial to the secretary of the colonies. But as it is obviously impossible that a secretary for the colonies can be fully acquainted with the various details of management, in each colony, differing as they do, the weight of his decision is not at all times calculated to afford entire satisfaction to the parties interested.

It is to be regretted, that when the Home government enters into an agreement with either a single emigrant, or a large number, care is not taken to prevent the possibility of any misconception of its terms. In fairness to

both parties,—to the settler and to the public—the agreement should be drawn up in so clear a manner as to render abortive any attempt at a forced construction. So far, however, from the home authorities having preserved the agreements entered into with various bodies of emigrants, from the possibility of doubt, as to the actual terms by which both parties were bound, the compacts are the fertile sources of misapprehension." Emigrants assert that the authorities do not act up to the terms of their bargain, whilst the government maintains that the settlers are desirous to gain more advantageous terms than they have any right to expect.

The English system of creating a revenue, by exacting large imposts on some articles, and none whatever on others, has been adopted in this new country. The wieldy and expensive arrangements which are used in England to prevent smuggling, but which are demonstrated to be inefficient, can only be put into operation in a densely-peopled country, and are, therefore, unfit for New Holland. Smug-

gling is carried on to a large extent in all the settlements, in consequence of the smallness of the establishments maintained in order to prevent it. It might, perhaps, be found, on trial, that a system which imposes a mere nominal duty on every article imported, is better fitted for a new and thinly-peopled country than one which fixes so large a duty on a small number of articles, as to render the gain of illicit trade more than equal to the risk. The aggregate of so large a number of small sums, would be more than equal to a few large items.

The agitation of any question of public importance, in a colony, usually produces much excitement—for, in a small community, the effects of any measure of consequence are felt directly by all. Colonists are not the men to submit quietly to any real or supposed injustice. Having in their body a good proportion of active, stirring men of business, they watch narrowly, perhaps, suspiciously, the acts of their rulers. As the barriers between those who rule, and those who are ruled, are less clearly defined, and less complicated, it happens

that every settler considers himself competent to form an opinion on any question.

The report of the select committee of the House of Commons, in 1837, proves that the system of transportation adopted by Great Britain, has neither had the effect of ameliorating the moral condition of felons, nor of deterring others from the commission of crime. So far, indeed, from improving the character of the prison population, the system of transportation appears to have altogether a different effect, for it appears that crime has increased in the penal colonies in a greater ratio than the population; and, instead of causing a dread in the minds of evil-doers at home, it has had a very different result.

Notwithstanding the stringent discipline which is enforced towards the convicts who are transported, it is a commonly received opinion in England that they may—if they behave with anything like propriety—raise themselves to independence; and—if they are clever—to opulence; so that the salutary dread of punishment is lost on the minds of

those who might be prevented, by fear, from pursuing their evil courses. The circumstance that many convicts, in the early days of the penal settlements, amassed great wealth, has lent force to this opinion, which is considered to be much credited by those individuals who are liable to feel, in their own persons, the fallacy of their notions. It is true, that some convicts have scraped together a great deal of money, but it is also true that it would be impossible for them to do so now, under the present stringent system.

There can exist no reasonable doubt that all the evils of the system of transportation spring from the unrestricted intercourse which is allowed from the commencement of the outward voyage to the expiration of the term of imprisonment. The tyro in crime soon becomes an adept when the principles of vice and immorality are hourly inculcated. The hardened miscreants, who constitute the majority of transported felons, obliterate in a short time any sparks of virtue which may remain in the breasts of any of their companions. The man who, in a

moment of temptation, has committed his one offence, is speedily changed into the hardened reprobate, by being forced into the society of the worst of his species. When a free intercourse is permitted among a large body of criminals, a change for the worse takes place in all; the less unprincipled lose the small remains of right feeling, and the thoroughly depraved, the hardened offenders, become still more reckless: their deeds of iniquity are dwelt on, and the more daring and the more vicious they may have been, the more are they extolled. New plans of wickedness are invented in those hot beds of crime, where an unrestricted intercourse is allowed to every class of offenders.

It is strange that a government of yesterday should be the first to lead the way to a proper system of imprisonment for its criminals. It is extraordinary that all the governments of Europe should have followed in the path pursued for ages in confirming their prisoners in crime, instead of devising the means of reforming them, and of bringing them again within the pale of society. It is evident, that the system

the best adapted to inspire terror in the minds of the unprincipled, and to improve the moral character of the prisoners is the one which debars them from most of the comforts of life, at the same time that they are amply provided with its necessaries, and which prevents any increase of demoralization, by permitting the unrestricted access to them of those only whose object is to withdraw them from their evil courses. It is, in fact, the system of America. But let me not be understood as referring to that state of solitary confinement peculiar to the state of Pensylvania.

If the name of America were blotted from the page of history, retaining only her connexion with the treatment of prisoners, she would for ever live in the grateful recollections of distant ages; for she was the first to let in a flow of light on a subject which had been hitherto obscured with the thick cloud of impenetrable darkness. Whatever opinions opposing politicians may hold as to her political institutions, none can deny her the proud title of being the first nation that acted with an enlightened

policy towards her prisoners. Let us hope that no envious feelings of rivalry will block up the path by which the old governments of Europe may follow her judicious example.

When the parent country receives from any colony more than she forwards to it, when the balance sheet is in the favour of the parent stock, no one need be surprised if the inhabitants of that colony are disposed to sever the connexion which binds them to the root from which they have sprung. Colonists are, at all times, inclined to view in a captious spirit, any acts of the mother country which affect their interests; unless, indeed, they are manifestly of direct, positive advantage to them. They argue that it was not for their individual benefit that Great Britain established colonies; but, on the contrary, because it was considered that they would increase the prosperity of the empire in general,—and so far from feeling grateful for what has been done, the gratitude should rather proceed from the bulk of the nation towards them, for having firmly fixed the roots of an empire at the risk of much danger,

and through sufferings and hardships of which none but themselves can conceive the extent.

Now, when a colony has been brought forward by means of a large expenditure furnished by the parent country, and also by the long-continued exertions of its inhabitants, and has arrived at such a state that it is enabled to support itself without assistance, the settlers will turn over in their minds whether or not it would be for their advantage to break off the connection. When colonists are doubtful if their dependence on the parent stock is of benefit to them, circumstances will not be slow in happening, calculated to render them more and more distrustful of those acts of the general government which refer to them. It has happened that a colony, which was formed by the British people at an immense cost, has severed itself from British protection when it was in a condition to progress without support. It has happened that another colony attempted the same experiment, but failed; the attempt, however, occasioned a considerable loss to the mother country, from her having been obliged to put

herself to a great expense to withstand the effort. Now, it is not improbable that the same trial may be made by others, when they are in a position to attempt it with any possibility of success. It is but too evident that they would receive the ready support of those kingdoms who behold, with envy, the riches of our great nation.

It could not reasonably be expected that any great amount of propriety would be found in the intercourse of the majority of persons resident in a convict colony, living, as they do, in the midst of prisoners of the worst description. But the inhabitants of the non-convict colonies, who boast their superiority in this respect, are certainly not remarkable for refinement.

The inhabitants of a new country experience great difficulty in selecting society adapted to their tastes. This is felt with great force in New Holland, and is attributable to the character of the soil which compels the settlers to live far apart in order to procure feed for their stock. This prevents their making any selection in their society; for, if they associate with any,

it must be with those who happen to be situated near them. Even a long-settled district is not free from this great objection to the comfort of its inhabitants.

Persons who have always resided in a large town, or even in an agricultural district in Europe, and who have not known the discomfort of being unable to select their own society, can scarcely conceive the annoyances which attend a residence in a country where no selection can be made.

Whatever the capabilities of the soil of a new country, and however delightful and salubrious its climate, its inhabitants are, in a great degree, debarred from the enjoyment of intellectual gratification. The faculties of the mind are sufficiently exercised in procuring the means of mere subsistence, without being employed on more noble occupations. It follows, that when many persons are debarred from the enjoyment of human intercourse for any great length of time, a want of refinement will be apparent. Communion with living minds is one great step to mental improvement.

In those divisions of an old country, where a large proportion of the inhabitants are inclined to the commission of crime, a great point is gained towards securing the general tranquillity, by the appointment of gentlemen of irreproachable character and high standing, to the onerous and responsible situations of justices of the peace. From the description of persons of whom the population of new countries principally consists, it is scarcely possible that a sufficient number of gentlemen can, at all times, be found, whose attainments and whose actions would render them eligible for the high office of the magistracy. Indeed, in many districts, the commission of the peace has been granted to individuals ill-fitted for such a mark of the public estimation, not from a want of care on the part of the local government, but from an impossibility of making a better selection.

This difficulty extends to juries, and the plan of selecting military officers has been adopted in some colonies. Englishmen, who are apt to view suspiciously all attempts to

circumscribe the liberty of the subject, may be disposed to consider this a measure of questionable advantage. In arriving at a conclusion on this point, they should not forget to consider the peculiar position in which new thinly-peopled countries are placed, with regard, in the first place, to the dispersion of the population; and, secondly, to the conflicting interests which cannot but actuate, to a certain degree, the decisions of each of those classes into which the population is divided. Admitting that military officers are deficient of a knowledge of trade and commercial transactions in general, it may, nevertheless, be found that a freedom from partiality, and an honest desire to administer justice, may more than counterbalance their want of information on some points. No desire to screen an offender from merited punishment, no cabal of one class of society against another would have any influence with such a jury. If the members of a military jury err, it will be, not from a wish to stay the hand of justice, but from an error of judgment. One is apt to carry the idea of martial law, courts-

martial, &c., with that of a military jury, but without sufficient reason. For a military jury, as constituted in the colonies, has only the same power as a jury of civilians.

The morality and virtue of those colonies in which there is no convict population, has been much vaunted. One very just means of ascertaining the amount of crime in a given district at home, is the proportionate number of persons convicted of offences within a given time. This criterion, however, does not apply to the colonies. An Englishman who has never voyaged "beyond the seas," would scarcely credit the extreme difficulty which is experienced in small settlements in impanelling impartial juries. Thus it is that many men escape the penalties of their crimes in the colonies, who, if their trials had taken place in an old country, would certainly have been punished.

The dwellers in the non-convict colonies, heedless of the offences which are every day occurring around them, affect to look with horror on the older colonies. They loudly boast of virtues, the possession of which is, at the best, extremely doubtful. When a woman

is vehement in protestations of her adherence to strict principles of conduct, it is not unusual to doubt the constancy of that morality, about which she makes such an uproar. But if in trying to uphold her own frail reputation, by a clamourous recital of her own excellence, she declaims against the vicious propensities of others, then, indeed, there can be but one opinion as to her true character. The inhabitants of those colonies in which there is no convict population,—not contented with quietly enjoying (as they assert they do) the advantages of living in countries, in which, if crime is not totally unknown, it is only so far met with, and of so mild a description, as to recall to their recollections the insecurity of life and property in Great Britain, and to make them dread what it may be in the convict colonies, wish to establish a reputation for highly moral characters.

One very prolific source of crime in all countries, is in full operation here—drunkenness. There are many reasons why this baneful habit should be more common than in Europe. In the first place, men who are disappointed on

seeing the soil which forms the land of their adoption, are very apt to drown their cares in the intoxicating bowl, men have been known to sit down—having made every arrangement beforehand for the supply of liquor—with the avowed intention of drinking themselves to death. Secondly, men, who are forced to labour under the burning rays of an Australian sun, necessarily suffer from excessive thirst, which they allay by copious libations; and having found that cold water is highly injurious in a state of perspiration, they mix spirits with it, which they are liable to do in too large quantities. These causes combined, create a habit of drinking, frequently and deeply, which induces men, who in England were temperate, even abstemious, to become hopeless drunkards; for so gradually does it make its insidious advances, that its approach is not dreaded until when too late, when it is confirmed by the contagion of bad examples constantly before their eyes.

A working-man must exercise a strong control over himself, who can resist the prevailing defect. If the habit of drinking be ever

excusable, it is when labouring under a terrifically hot sun, and when subsisting on salt provisions, with brackish water, for then thirst becomes almost insupportable, and large draughts are positively needed; and it is not surprising that when spirits can be procured, they should be added to the disagreeable water in rather larger quantities than is altogether commendable. It is scarcely possible that any one, who has not obtained his knowledge by actual observation, can form a correct idea of the horrible feelings of thirst when the mouth is hot and parched, when the brain is, as it were, almost on fire, and when every feeling and every desire is absorbed in the all-pervading longing for drink. It must be confessed that those classes of society, which cannot plead the same excuse as hard-working labourers, for giving way to so pernicious a habit, indulge very freely in the consumption of strong drinks.

If it be dangerous for a man in years, whose character is fully formed to enter the colonial arena, how much more hazardous must it be for

the youthful—always more eager for the amusement of the passing hour, than the attainment of the great end of human existence—whose dispositions, like the softest wax, receive, and firmly retain, every impression. For them it is an ordeal of no ordinary severity; they are surrounded by temptations; the path of duty is beset with every description of privation and hardship, and can only be trodden—with any chance of success—by an unvarying exercise of patient endurance and unremitting exertion; whilst the road to enjoyment is inviting, smooth, and readily presents itself to all who have money in their purses. It is a trial of strength with fearful odds against the wavering and inexperienced. With no friendly hand to pilot him through this sea of trouble, the young man in whom the principles of virtue and correct conduct are not firmly rooted, is left to buffet his way with but a sorry chance of his coming through it scathless and uncontaminated.

Although the difficulty of obtaining respectable and steady out-door workmen, is a serious obstacle to the operations of every settler, the

inconvenience attending the being obliged to employ almost any persons who may offer as domestic servants, is perhaps more trying, as it is certainly more hurtful in that family in which there are children; as their manners, and inclinations cannot but be materially influenced by the persons who are constantly with them, and who exercise an authority over them, only inferior to that of the parents. The disadvantage attending the being obliged to employ persons of indifferent character in the capacity of domestic servants—great as it is in the colonies in which there is no convict labour—is, nevertheless infinitely greater in the older convict colonies. When the domestics of a family are convicted felons, we cannot but feel apprehension for the morality of the children.

Children are the creatures of imitation; example with them goes a great deal farther than precept. They soon adopt the habits of those who are constantly about them, and it is apparent to the most casual observer, with how much difficulty early impressions are eradicated. If young children are bred up in the midst of

fraud, dissimulation, and dishonesty, the influence of the principles of virtue—which may be expounded to them in an abstract form—will be but as the passing wind, felt only for a time. Forgetful of the fine tenets of ethics, their characters will approach—in a certain degree—the standards which they have had always before their eyes.

It is true that many persons are expatriated for venial offences, which have had their origin in folly or misfortune, and therefore not necessarily accompanied with a moral taint, and hence it may be argued, that the settlers can select such persons for their household. Without desiring to go into the question, whether it is possible for any set of men to retain their purity of mind whilst commingled with so much that is the worst and most abandoned of existence, it may be sufficient to remark that those convicts who are so far removed from the others as not to be familiarised with atrocities, capable of being conceived only by minds in the lowest state of degradation, and requiring for their commission

the bull-dog ferocity of the hardened villain, are comparatively small in number. Their prospects in life are so thoroughly wrecked, as to render it impossible for them ever to regain that station in society which they have once lost. The brooding over their calamity makes them sullen and discontented; they are so disgusted with their own misconduct, and what they conceive to be the harsh treatment they have received, as to make them the most unfit for that household, in which any care is given to the education, moral or religious, of the children. It is very difficult to determine the real character of convicts, they are exceedingly cunning, and are so versed in the trade of deceit, as to elude, with much tact, any endeavour to discover their dispositions.

It is not to be expected that children who have been reared in this, the largest prison in either ancient or modern times, and whose parents have not the power of separating them from the hardened offenders it contains, should be remarkable for propriety of conduct. On the contrary, it is wonderful if they are not

distinguished by their yielding to vicious desires.

No details, however elaborate they may be, of the various gradations of vice by which its miserable victims are led down to the lowest depth of crime, can present so fearful a picture of moral debasement as the following sentence, which forms part of a charge of Mr. Justice Burton, at Sydney sessions, in the year 1835:—"It would appear to one who would look down upon the community, as if the main business of us all were the commission of crime, and the punishment of it."

Those settlers who live in and around the towns, spend a great deal of their incomes in dress. Clothing forms a large item of expenditure in Europe, but its cost is trifling when compared with the price of every description of dress in these colonies. Although the dress of the "town" settlers is expensive, it must be confessed that it is rather showy than neat,—more gaudy than tasteful. Many persons acting on the principle that it is bad enough to be poor, without appearing poor, wear costly gar-

ments, which serve to cover an aching heart, and very possibly, an empty stomach. On the other hand, the settlers who live in the bush, away from the towns, adopt the more prudent course of wearing stout strong clothing, which costs comparatively little, and lasts a long time. The money which the townsman expends in the adorning of his person, the bushman lays out in the purchase of stock, and the improvement of his property, and it is easy to foretell which is the more profitable eventually.

Settlers are in the habit of naming their estates after some well-known place in their native land. The mere sound of a name is peculiarly pleasing, when it has the power of bringing a thousand little incidents before the mind's eye, which change for the time the lonely habitation in the Australian bush into some choice spot in England's flowery meads. By the name which he gives to his comfortless dwelling, the settler does all he can to have one link which shall connect him, by the associations of sound, with the home of his childhood.

Let not the austere utilitarian jeer at an

innocent fancy which brings a solace to the isolated feelings of the lone settler. It may be that an uninterested person would see no similitude in any portion of the dreary bush in New Holland to the cultivated meadows of England, when a striking resemblance is perceived by the Australian settler. It may create a smile to hear mud-huts called after some of the fairest structures raised by England's proud nobility, and it forces a contrast on the mind which is anything but advantageous to the humbler dwelling.

Colonists are hospitable and most attentive to strangers. Travellers, though personally unknown, are received in the true spirit of liberal hospitality—whatever the accommodation, the hearty welcome of the host is never wanting. The wayfarer, when he is passing through a district where inns are scarce, makes his calculation to stop at the house of some settler, who may or may not be known to him. When he arrives at the location, he puts his horse in the out-house, which serves as a stable, and walks to the dwelling-house, where

he is sure of being cordially welcomed by the owner. The one takes as freely as the other gives. Whatever the place contains, is the guest's:—if there be no bed for him, a "shake-down" is made, and if that cannot be had, he rolls himself in his blanket before the fire; the best meal that can be procured is cooked for him, and seasoned with the best of all sauces, the host's hearty welcome. The horse fares as well as his master; if there be corn on the premises he gets it, and plentifully; if there be none, he is tethered out in the best place. If the wayfarer be sick, the health-restoring medicine is brought him, and he stops till he is quite well, or until he wishes to resume his journey.

The true old English spirit of free hospitality —so remarkable in all the Anglo-Saxon race— is, perhaps, no where more fully brought out than in a new country, thinly-peopled. There are no ostentatious protestations of service, but all the host has to offer is freely at the service of his guest. In point of fact, I do not think that genuine hospitality can anywhere be met with

of a brighter, better hue, than in these colonies, and the inhabitants never appear under more pleasing colours than when holding out the right hand of hospitality to the sojourner that is within their gates.

CHAP. VIII.

"How strong the power
Of local sympathy—the potent charm
Which binds man to his darling home."

WHEN a man travels in a far distant region, in which he is cut off by a wide gulf from communication with his relatives and intimates, a feeling of loneliness cannot but at times come over him, however pleasant the country may be in which he resides, or however much his pecuniary prospects may be benefitted by his exile. If he be prospering, he sighs for the heartfelt encouragement of those, whose approbation he estimates beyond the empty congratulations of hollow multitudes. But when the horizon of his life grows dull,—when chill adversity throws her cold and leaden mantle over him, then in-

deed does he mourn for the affectionate sympathy of lasting, time-proved friendship. It may be said that new friendships arise in new countries—that persons unacquainted with each other prior to their engaging in the same enterprise, become firmly, lastingly attached. Undoubtedly, it is so, under some circumstances. But the settler whose energies are stretched to their utmost limit to keep him even with the world, has little time and less opportunity to look around to discover one of a congenial temperament, who might fill the void space in his affections. If such be the feelings of the distant absentee who has no cause to regret the place he has chosen for his sojourn, what must be the mental anguish of the deceived, the deluded emigrant, when he discovers the character of the country for which he has deserted the land of his birth, and for which he has exiled himself from the tried, the fond friends of his boyhood ?

The means by which they will be enabled to prevent the straggling of their children into the bush, is not unworthy the consideration of

those persons who intend to emigrate with large families. A person who has not experienced the intricacy of the bush, cannot conceive how infinitely perplexing it is, sometimes, to prevent making a circle, instead of proceeding in something like an approach to a straight line. Instances are numerous of men having been lost for several days in the bush, who had never, during the whole time, been more than a mile or so from the dwellings in which they had resided for a long period. Worn out with fatigue, hunger, and horrible uncertainty as to his position, and suffering from the extreme of thirst, while the burning rays of the sun dart like liquid fire on his defenceless head, and driven to depair by the deceitful appearance of the illusive mirage, the wanderer in the Australian wilderness fails to recognise even the most familiar spots.

The dread of losing children, from their wandering in the bush, must always bear heavily on the minds of affectionate, anxious parents, whose dwellings are in a thinly-settled district. It is scarcely possible to conceive a

more lingering, a more horrible death, than that which is caused by inanition in the desolate wilderness. From the tracks of persons who have lost themselves, it would appear that there is always an inclination of the course towards a circle, rather than a straight line.

The difficulty which is experienced by persons in the possession of every faculty, and not suffering from fatigue, in keeping something like a straight course, in some unsettled districts is scarcely credible. Men have been known to go round and round a hill several times, whilst they fancied they were proceeding in the direction they wished, and when at last they have happened to come to some remarkable object, which had attracted their notice before, they have been so persuaded that they have gone directly onwards, that they have found much difficulty in being satisfied to the contrary.

When once a man is completely at a loss as to his situation, his mind becomes perplexed, and he keeps going on and on, until overcome with fatigue and hunger, and panting

for water to relieve his dreadful thirst, he sinks down exhausted at the foot of a tree, when nature affords him some temporary alleviation in the forgetfulness of sleep. Roused, however, by hideous dreams, which have some similitude to his actual situation, he starts up, when the dread caused by imaginary ills is succeeded by the terrors of reality. There is now scarcely any chance of his reaching his destined point, for bewildered by his unsettled sleep, and having no recollection of the direction he was pursuing, he has no clue to guide his tottering footsteps. Onward, however, he goes, but he knows not in which direction. After a while, he changes his intention, feeling convinced that he is going wrong, and makes as much haste in the one direction as he had just now done in the other. As nature becomes exhausted, he is either forced to lie down, or he tumbles, unable any longer to continue his devious course. This happens several times, until at last nature, taxed beyond her power, terminates his horrible sufferings by the relieving hand of death. Such being the case with man, who can pourtray the

mental torture of the heart-broken parents whose fondly beloved child is lost in the bush? It passes all description.

Lest it should be considered that the unpleasant feeling of living so far removed from their friends, as those Australian settlers do, whose connections are in Europe, is overdrawn in these pages, an extract from the writings of a settler to his friends is subjoined, which must have the effect of determining the matter, from the circumstances under which it was written. It is an extract from the letters and journals of Mr. George Fletcher Moore:—"But you, in the midst of society, cannot understand this feeling of *nostalgia*, and may smile at it. I used to smile too, most incredulously, when I read of such a thing—of the poor Swiss, for instance, dying from a fatal longing after his beloved mountain home, 'Et moriens dulces reminiscitur Argos.' Who has not known and tasted the bitterness of this sensation, the throbbing, the aching, the hopeless despondency of the heart? May *you* never experience this feeling! for it is one which requires the indifference of a Stoic, or

the patient resignation of a Christian, to endure without repining. I endeavour to obtain the latter quality, but fall lamentably short of it; and, therefore, apply myself to laborious occupation, as a diversion of the thoughts from painful contemplation." This quotation—as remarkable for its elegance as its truth—is taken from the writings of a gentleman holding an important official situation, and an eminently successful colonist, and who would, therefore, have as few causes of dislike as most persons, to the country of his adoption.

Emigrants to a young colony, will do well to make themselves acquainted with the sort of life to which the first settlers of a colony must submit, because they will then be able to make preparations accordingly. To prove to those who may purpose proceeding to a colony during the first years of its existence, that such enquiry is not unnecessary, it is only requisite to lay before them a sentence or two from the report of a committee appointed at a general meeting of the inhabitants of one of the Australian colonies on the then state of the colony,—a

period of six years after its foundation. "At one period of severe privation, such was the want of food, that condemned salt beef, which had been buried as unfit for food, was disinterred, and actualty sold for one shilling per pound." "The supply of bread or flour has been equally precarious and fluctuating with that of other descriptions of provisions; at times the market overstocked with imported flour, selling at two-pence, at other times difficult to be bought at one shilling per pound. At one period, a substitute for bread was sold at one shilling per pound, composed of a small quantity of bad flour, rice and potatoes."

There is one point connected with the future prospects of New Holland, which is very generally overlooked. No apprehension is entertained that other countries, well adapted by nature for the rearing of sheep, will follow in the footsteps of Australia in the improvement of the wool, by crosses with the superior breeds. If we only turn our attention to one of those countries, we shall find that it enjoys so many advantages over New Holland in the profitable

growth of wool, as to render it highly improbable that its capabilities will pass unregarded much longer. In British India, the first cost of a sheep is a mere trifle, the price of labour is surprisingly low, pasture is endless, with climates of every variety, — and, when the present breed has been judiciously crossed, there can be but little doubt of that country being able to grow wool of a very superior description. When the rapid change which took place in the quality of the Australian wool, by the introduction of the superior breeds of sheep, is borne in mind, it will be pretty evident that no serious difficulty will be experienced in producing the same result elsewhere, providing the climate be favourable. It is clear that the owners of sheep in British India, can afford to lay out larger sums in the improvement of the native breeds, by the importation of the superior descriptions of sheep, than the flock owners of New Holland were enabled to do, at the time when their sheep were of indifferent breeds; because there is an immense number of sheep

in our possessions in India, which are, in their present state, worth an exceedingly small sum, but which only require judicious crossing to become exceedingly valuable. For however long a period, the capabilities of our Indian empire, for the profitable growth of superior wool, have been overlooked, it may not be doubted that, when the public attention is directed to this quarter, as being one where good wool may be grown at little expense, a great change will come over the prospects of New Holland. When once British capital is directed into this channel, it is easy to perceive the injury which Australian flock-owners will suffer, but it is difficult to estimate the extent of it. Intending emigrants should weigh this matter carefully, before they determine on starting for any particular settlement.

The friends of any person, in whom there is an hereditary predisposition to insanity in any of its forms, would act very injudiciously in not endeavouring to prevent his proceeding to any part of New Holland, either as a temporary sojourner, or as a settler. Any one

who is liable to fits, or who suffers from any affection of the head, will have cause, sooner or later, to regret his having taken up his abode in any of these colonies. The intense heat of the sun must have the effect of rendering any disease of the head less liable to submit to remedies, even when the mind is perfectly contented. But when in addition to the extreme heat, the mind is annoyed and worried by the hardships and difficulties of a settler's life;—when sufferings increase, and disappointment lowers over him, when the high-flown expectations of the emigrant are blighted, when radiant hope flies from before him: then, indeed, is the settler, who suffers from any affection of the head, certain to be lost.

It has been recommended to those emigrants who purpose taking their passages in the intermediate cabin, or in the steerage, to insist on having a written agreement from the charterer of the vessel, endorsed by the captain, explaining definitely what are the conveniences that they are to have on ship-board, as to cooking, the use of utensils, water, &c., and engaging

that these shall be furnished. This would be all very well if it could be carried into effect But the fact of the matter is, that the emigrant, whose time is of the greatest possible importance to him on the eve of embarkation, is bandied from the charterer to the captain, and from the ship to the counting-house if he want any written agreement of this sort. The charterer states fairly enough while the emigrant is paying him his passage money, that the captain is a very good sort of person, and he has no doubt that every thing will be as it ought, but that he does not know exactly what cooking utensils, &c., there are on board the ship, and therefore he must see the master of the ship before he can sign any binding agreement. This is all fair and smooth enough, but the emigrant will find that he is no match for the acuteness of a clever merchant, and he will at last give the thing up in despair, and so save his time, every moment of which is of the utmost value.

Even if the emigrant had succeeded in his attempts to obtain a written document, it would have made but very little difference, for

it is not to be supposed that a person who had never taken a voyage, or who perhaps, had never seen the sea before, could know the sort or number of articles which he will require on board ship. Again, if he had procured the much sought after agreement, endorsed by the captain, which agreement he could prove to have been broken, it is highly probable that he would not trouble himself, on landing, with any endeavour to recover damages for the non-fulfilment of the contract. People are so delighted at reaching their destination, — at being released from their wearisome imprisonment,—that they are too well pleased to dismiss from their minds all the annoyances of the voyage. The emigrant has too much work already on his hands, to dream of troubling himself with a tedious law proceeding. He may growl and grumble on board ship as to the annoyances he is obliged to submit to, but he forgets them all when he lands.

For instance, one hardly ever hears of any proceedings against a master of a vessel on the part of his late passengers, whilst it is well

known to every one who has any acquaintance with sea-faring matters, that it is far from an uncommon occurrence, for the passengers and the master to disagree about the accommodations, &c., during a long voyage. People must not, however, be led away by the idea that the fault is always that of the captain. Passengers who have never been to sea before, have such absurd expectations as to the attendance, &c., they ought to receive, that they are enough to try the patience of the most easy-tempered person. They appear to fancy that the duty of the ship must give place to attendance on them.

It is, undoubtedly, as advantageous to the enlargement of a man's views, as it is profitable to the general stock of knowledge, for him who possesses the means, to visit various countries. Nothing has a greater tendency to obliterate the littleness of human nature, than to exhibit to it the various means by which different varieties of the family of man, have turned to a profitable use the faculties bestowed on them by their Creator. However far advanced, a nation may conceive itself to be in all the arts of civilized

life, it is almost certain that something new and useful may be acquired from the inhabitants of other countries, although they may possibly be far inferior in general knowledge. But, however useful this enquiry may be made in increasing the stock of information possessed by any people, it is one which requires the expenditure of a great deal of money; and consequently it is not prudent for a person already struggling with adverse circumstances to engage in such an undertaking without seeing his way pretty clearly.

Emigrants just arrived from the mother country, and who are disappointed in their expectations of the capabilities of the soil, if they happen to possess the means, are very liable to leave the country in disgust, and to continue their voyagings to some other colony, of which they have received favourable accounts. But this is a system which cannot be too much deprecated, for it affects the emigrant on his most vulnerable point. The sums which are charged by masters of ships, for a passage for a family from one of these colonies to

another, although at no great distance, are truly enormous; arising from the rate of seamen's wages being very much higher in New Holland than in Europe. It follows, that the captains of ships are compelled to charge at a very high rate for freight and for passages.

An emigrant cannot commit a greater error, cannot inflict a greater injury on his future prospects, than to persevere in wandering. The expenses attending his transit from one colony to another, eat up his little capital; so that, at last, he is forced to desist, by his incapability of proceeding in his former course from his deficiency of means, and is obliged to labour as a servant for the gain of another, where he anticipated great emolument from his acting as an employer.

When emigrants are on the eve of embarkation for one of the Australian colonies, they are very liable to fall into a serious and irretrievable error—they are apt to expend a great portion of their capital in the purchase of goods for the colonial market. Now the market in these colonies is so fluctuating, that merchants, whose

aim is to ascertain its exact state, and who have correspondents well situated to procure the desired information, are very frequently deceived in their expectations. If, then, merchants, with every means within their reach of obtaining the much-desired knowledge, are large losers by the fluctuations of the market in which they speculate, it is evident that emigrants, who must select their investments at hap-hazard, must run a very great risk.

When an emigrant invests a large portion of his capital in a mercantile 'venture, he encounters the chance of being placed in a very awkward situation. For, he will be completely at a loss to know the best plan to adopt, if it should happen that he has made a selection of articles unsuited to the state of the market. Under such circumstances, the merchant has a great advantage over the emigrant, and if he loses by his speculation, the uninitiated emigrant will lose still more. Unless he is very certain indeed of the propriety of the course he is about to pursue, he will do well to be exces-

sively cautious how he parts with any portion of his little capital.

It is probable that the best plan an emigrant can adopt, with regard to his stock of money, is to divide it into three equal portions; to sink one third in articles to take with him; to carry out with him one third in the shape of cash, or in some other medium, which can, immediately on his arrival, be converted into money, such as a credit on a "respectable" bank, and to leave the remaining portion at home to meet future contingencies. The plan of allowing any portion of his capital to remain in England, may not perhaps meet the ardent expectations of an intending emigrant, but it is, nevertheless, one which will be of the greatest advantage to him hereafter. It will prevent the possibility of his becoming seriously involved soon after his entrance into colonial life.

If the emigrant adopt this line of action, he will be enabled to procure those articles which he finds are essentially necessary to his success, at a very much cheaper rate, than if he were obliged to purchase them in the colonies. And

if it should so happen that he has brought out with him every article which he himself requires, there is every probability that he will be able to send home for such a selection of mercantile commodities, as will pay him a very good percentage for the use of his money. At any rate, he will have a much better chance of selecting such goods as will suit, than if he had chosen his venture without having any data on which he could rest his judgment. A man who hazards so much on one cast as an emigrant to one of the Australian colonies, will do well to reserve some portion of his little property to meet any unforeseen disasters.

CHAPTER IX.

"" It is a goodly sight to see
What Heaven hath done for this delicious land."

It has been a favorite argument, that an extensive emigration from Great Britain to the colonies is imperatively necessary, in consequence of the excess of population. It must be admitted, that when the population of a country has increased to such an extent, that there is not sufficient land for the maintenance of its people, it is requisite that some portion should be induced to proceed to some other country, abounding in uncultivated land, where the soil yields large crops at the expense of a small quantity of labour; *provided* the manu-

factures of the country are not in such a state as to enable its inhabitants to effect an advantageous exchange of manufactured goods for the agricultural produce raised in other territories.

It is surprising that any allusion should have been made to the quantity of land capable of cultivation in the British Islands, by any person who wished to show that emigration from Great Britain was absolutely necessary, because it will be found, on investigation, that there are somewhere about 15,000,000 of acres of waste land in Great Britain which are capable of cultivation, and because the agriculture of the kingdom has by no means arrived at perfection. It should be remembered by all those who endeavour to produce an extensive emigration from Great Britain, on the plea of insufficiency of land; that many portions of Bagshot Heath are now covered with thriving plantations and green fields, the soil of which, in its natural state, was declared by Sir Humphrey Davy on analysis, to be the most barren in England.

They should also not forget to contrast the present with the former state of Chat Moss.

In order to show that much of the uncultivated land will amply repay the labour and expense of its cultivation, it will be sufficient to direct attention to the increased resources of some districts, which have followed a judicious expenditure of capital. It was stated by Mr. C. Wye Williams, before the committee on the state of the poor in Ireland, that in consequence of the sum of £167,000 being expended by Mr. Nimmo, in Connaught alone, in seven years, the increase of the *annual* revenue to government, has since been equal to the whole of that expenditure. He stated further, that £60,000 were expended in seven years by Mr. Griffiths, the government engineer, in the Cork district, and that the increase of government revenue in customs and excise, in the district has been £50,000 a year, which is to be attributed mainly to the increased facility of communication, by which whole districts have been rendered available for productive purposes, and a miserable pauper population converted

into a productive class of consumers. Mr. C. W. Williams says, further, "The increase is so peculiarly marked in the districts in which the expenditure took place, as to decide the question of its being attributable to that alone; and, I have no doubt, I am borne out in the opinion that, in any given seven years, the annual increase of the revenue will be equal to the whole sum expended. I mean, if judiciously and carefully expended, in opening sources of internal industry, among which the increasing facilities for a profitable interchange of produce is among the foremost. In this produce may be classed coal, turf, manure of all sorts, slates, bricks, lime, building stone, timber, potatoes and other provisions." Mr. Nimmo has given evidence, the result of surveys and extensive experience, that there are several millions of acres of waste in Ireland, which would repay at least ten per cent. on the capital expended in improving them. "I can hardly conceive," says Mr. James Weale, "a limit to the new market which would be opened for British manufactures and for native labour, by an improved system

of management and cultivation of landed property in that country, even of the old enclosures alone." It is asserted by intelligent, practical authorities, that there is ample employment to be found of a profitable kind, for the whole of the population of Ireland, through a long series of years, in reclaiming the bogs and mountains, cutting roads and canals, cultivating the waste lands brought under tillage, and bettering the cultivation of the old enclosed lands.

That the condition of the people of Ireland would be benefitted—that the resources of the country would be enlarged by the employment of capital, in opening up her latent riches—and that the capital, so employed, would yield a very good *moneyed* interest, there cannot be a doubt.

If we turn to Scotland, we shall find that a great improvement has been effected by the judicious application of money, in improving the condition of the people, and of drawing out, as it were, the capabilities of the soil. Mr. Telford stated that a system of public works, carried on in the Highlands, between 1812 and

1817, had the effect of entirely changing the moral character of the population, both teaching and enabling them to depend on their own exertions for support. "It has been the means," he says, "of advancing that country at least one hundred years."

We have here sufficient evidence to show that, when capital is judiciously employed in this way, it will be certain to return a very excellent interest. In this case, self-interest and duty go hand in hand. The money thus invested will yield a large return, while it sheds increased comfort and happiness on all who feel its influence. It is only when it is employed in this way, that the possession of wealth can be really gratifying to a high and generous mind.

In the evidence of Mr. C. Wye Williams, the increase of the government revenue is stated. But, however large this may be, it cannot but form a trifling portion of the real increase of the resources of the district. Mr. C. W. Williams states, on the authority of facts, that, at the end of seven years, there will be an annual increase of the government

revenue equal to the whole of the capital expended in Ireland, when it is employed with care and judgment in opening avenues for the interchange of the produce of industry. If the government revenue be increased in this ratio, how much more must the resources of the private individuals, who reside in or near the district, be improved, and to how great an extent must the labouring population be benefitted? The advantages of such measures are felt, not only in the immediate neighbourhood of the district in which capital is judiciously expended, but they ramify amongst all classes.

The manufacturing interest is immediately and directly benefitted by those acts which improve the condition of any portion of the population, which add to their riches in any way, and it is especially benefitted when the improvement takes place in a class of people that suffered previously the pinchings of poverty in an intolerable degree. The good effects of such measures as these are not limited to one district, or to one portion of the kingdom; they are diffused through all classes of the community. What must be

the effect on the manufactures of the country, of the drawing out the rich, latent resources of a district where the wages are reduced to the very minimum on which life and strength can be preserved, even on that miserable food, the unvaried potato? It may be asked, what has prevented the investment of some of the overflowing capital of Great Britain in this manner, which is as humane, as it is profitable? The want of capital caused the evil which hinders its employment. The wretchedness and disorganization arising from the want of work, prevents capital from finding its way into Ireland; whilst, on the other hand, the deficiency of money stops the employment of the poor.

It is strange that British capitalists should be able to furnish the world with money, whilst the vast resources of a country so intimately connected with them, by situation and by mutual interest, are allowed to remain entirely lost for the want of some of that necessary ingredient in stimulating the energy, and in sustaining the powers of a people. Scarcely can there be

found a speck on the ocean's wide expanse, on which British labour and British capital are not in active operation. The money of Great Britain, is readily and profusely expended in opening up the resources of far-distant regions; whilst its vivifying influence is sparingly felt in districts at home, where vast riches are lying hidden for the want of its employment. One is almost forced to conclude that the farther the site of a proposed undertaking, or of a contemplated act of humanity, happens to be from the centre of the empire, the greater favour does it in consequence possess. The capital which is scattered with a lavish hand at a distance, is either withheld altogether, or is niggardly expended near at home.

There does not appear one sound reason for the expenditure of large sums of money far abroad, in preference to its careful and judicious employment at home. Even taking it for granted, that a greater interest is obtained for the use of money, when it is invested in countries very far distant, it does not follow that it is, therefore, advisable to expend money

in them, because the per centage thus obtained may not equal the interest it may bear near at home, when the time lost in remitting it is taken into account, *plus* the extra expense of its management, and the probability of loss from the improprieties of agents.

When the population of the central portions of an empire are contented and happy—when, by the wise acts of the governing powers, the miseries of stinging, vice-alluring poverty are warded off—the real strength of that empire will be a vast deal greater and more enduring than if its centre were violently agitated by domestic dissentions, whether arising from excited passions, or the miserable privations consequent on poverty. It is undeniable, that the actual strength of a kingdom consists rather in the firm union of its people, than in a large amount of nominal territory; for, the larger the extent of its boundary, the greater will be the probability of weakness, unless, indeed, its people are closely knit together. Now this cannot happen, unless they are far removed from any approach to actual want; for poverty

is the greatest evil that can befall a nation. From it, proceeds disorganisation of every possible description. When the population of a country is suffering from the gnawing horrors of hunger, there is no extent of crime which may not be perpetrated. As food becomes scarce, the bad principles of our nature rise to the ascendant; they are no longer controlled by the better feelings of humanity. The blessings of civilisation vanish from before the withering touch of the demon—poverty. When the evils of want are experienced in an extreme degree, they are indeed most awful. The farther then that any people are removed from want, the greater will be their adhesion to the existing authorities, and, in consequence, the firmer will be the stability of their country.

It is clear that any disturbance among the home population is more dangerous to the general tranquillity of the empire, than the same extent of commotion in distant regions. For, popular tumults in far distant countries, may be severely felt locally, without affecting, in any considerable degree, the safety of the

whole empire, but when they occur at home, their ill effects are experienced in every division of the kingdom. Surely then, that would be a wise measure, thatconsolidated the power of the British nation, by improving the condition of the home population, by drawing out the rich latent resources of this—the chief and most important section of the kingdom.

One method of turning waste lands to advantage, is not adopted, nearly to the extent to which it might be, in many districts of Great Britain; and it is one as profitable as it is generally applicable to those soils which will not pay for other cultivation. When the rocky or hilly nature of the ground precludes the employment of any of the ordinary operations of farming, or when there is a good soil considerably below the superficies, the rearing of trees will return a good interest on the capital and labour that may have been invested.

Farmers are too apt to suppose that they have done all which is necessary in the rearing of trees, when they plant them in that portion of their ground which is useless, from some

cause, for any other purpose. There cannot be a greater error than to imagine that the labour, which is judiciously expended in fostering the growth of young plantations, and in attending to them at all times, is thrown away: for, by proper management, a plantation is very much increased in value. When the trees are well suited to the description of soil on which they are raised, and at no great distance from a market, they will be found very profitable. In many situations a coppice, which is managed with judgment, and on which the requisite quantity of labour is not spared, will pay exceedingly well. It very often happens, that no care is bestowed on this kind of plantation until the time arrives for it to be cut. But this is a mistake by which the farmer suffers much loss. Some soils which will yield no other produce, unless by the outlay of a capital disproportionate to the value of the crops which are to be raised in consequence, are admirably adapted for the rearing of some descriptions of trees, as their roots will penetrate far down in the soil, and will often receive nourishment at a

depth, while there is very little fertilising power in the surface soil.

It is very pleasing to all those who feel an interest in the productions of their native land, to contemplate the advantages which accrue to entire population by the judicious endeavours of public-spirited individuals to increase its resources. It is peculiarly interesting, when such endeavours, so far from being necessarily accompanied by pecuniary sacrifice, are so managed as to add to the wealth of the persons who commence these patriotic measures, because there is, then, every reason to conclude that they will act as examples, which will be followed in very many instances. It is, perhaps, as strong a proof of the mastery of the mind of man over the universe, of which he holds dominion, as can be adduced, when by the exercise of the intelligence which has been granted to him, he extracts a valuable produce from a naturally barren soil.

The wisdom of the Dukes of Athol, in commencing the plantation of larch on their estates

in Scotland, may, perhaps, be some day properly appreciated, when the results are prominently brought forward. It is strange, that landed proprietors should be almost loth to incur any expense, however trifling, in drawing out the resources of their own country, although certain to be amply remunerated for their outlay.

When circumstances, which produce loss, have been in operation for a long period, men's minds become so accustomed to them, that if they are not entirely overlooked, but very little is thought of them. Thus few persons, however much their pockets may be affected by it, are aware of the mischief which is caused in the communications of a country by the presence of large patches of uncultivated waste land, and they disregard the advantages which would be derived from the labour of the unemployed poor on such ground.

This is not a question which interests either a few individuals or one party of men,—it affects all. It must be evident to every one who considers the subject, that by the improvement of

uncultivated land, a great benefit is conferred on the holders of the property which surrounds it, for a class of persons would be brought into existence whose object would be the improvement of the interests of the older occupiers by facilitating the means of communication between them. By the formation of good roads across an uninhabited, uncultivated waste, an immense advantage would be conferred on the occupiers of the land on every side, as it is evident that their possessions would, virtually, be brought much nearer together, and it is equally evident that when any benefit—which does not interfere with other interests—is gained by the tillers of the soil, the advantage is not confined solely to them, but on the contrary, is felt by the entire population of a country.

It is clearly impossible that any other species of industry can affect so many individuals as agriculture, for any increase or diminution in the facilities for carrying on this, the most important branch of industry, is felt immediately and directly by every one—for, however much various bodies may be interested in the success

of the other branches of labour, there is no one who is not affected on the instant by any increase given to the economical employment of capital in this pursuit.

It may be asserted, that the cultivation of large tracts of that land at home, which is now suffered to remain useless, for the want of the employment of capital and labour on it, would be attended with very nearly the same extent of privation as necessarily accompanies the cultivating uncleared land in New Holland. But a little reflection will serve to show, that this is incorrect. In the first place, there never can be any probability of a deficiency of the necessaries of life in any portion of those waste lands, however extensive, which exist in Great Britain, before the soil has been made to yield its first crops: secondly, it may happen, that supplies may fetch a somewhat higher price than in the highly cultivated districts, but it can never happen, that the price can at all equal the enormously high rate which early colonists, in times of scarcity, are forced to pay. The merchants in those districts, which surround a

tract of waste land, which is being brought under cultivation, will take care to keep the people engaged in the improvement well supplied with every necessary, whilst the price will be kept down by competition.

In those two great supports, plenty of cheap labour, and a near market for the sale of produce, the cultivator of waste land in Great Britain enjoys an incalculable advantage over the settler in New Holland. In other respects his superiority is equally apparent. The one associates with persons of his own class in life, whilst the other lives amongst rude and barbarous savages. The one enjoys the vigorous protection of an efficient administration of the law, whilst the other is too often compelled to take his defence into his own hands,

It will be well to contrast the extent of cultivation of the British islands with that of Belgium,—a country, the soil of which is naturally unproductive. In the British islands there are in round numbers 46 millions of acres in cultivation, and 30 millions uncultivated; whereas there are about nine-elevenths of the whole

surface of Belgium under cultivation and from the uncultivated land we must deduct the surface occupied by roads, canals, and towns, to arrive at the knowledge of that portion which is not brought into active use. The soil of Belgium consists of sand in some places, and clay in others. By mixing these together, and adding manure, the Belgian farmer makes that soil fertile which, in a state of nature, would be exceedingly unproductive.

Without going into the general question of English agriculture, it may be allowable to remark, that it must be evident that the great body of English farmers are not sufficiently impressed with the value of liquid manure; and that they, consequently, allow that to run to waste which would, by proper management, be of the greatest utility. In this respect the English farmer might, with great advantage, take a hint from the Belgians, who collect, with the utmost care, the drainings of their dung-heaps, and all other fertilising liquids. The Belgians obtain manure by fattening large numbers of cattle. With them every thing is

turned to a profitable use; for, even in the small portion of uncultivated land, but a very small quantity is allowed to remain wholly unemployed—a considerable part of it being occupied by forests.

It cannot, then, be uninteresting to look into the causes which act so prejudicially to the interests of this country, by keeping so large a portion of its land wholly useless. It cannot arise from any want of industry in the tillers of the soil; and it surely cannot proceed from any want of capital to render that industry available. It, therefore, must arise from a want of knowledge of the means of bringing improvable land from a state of waste into profitable cultivation.

It would be as profitable as it would be humane, for the large owners of waste lands capable of improvement, to show, by practical experiments, to the English agriculturists, that a great deal of such land will *pay* for its cultivation, when a thorough knowledge of the principles of farming, applicable to the nature of the particular soils, is combined with patient industry. It is not enough to prove that they

are capable of bearing good crops when under cultivation, but it must also be made evident that they will pay when so cultivated. It is from the failing in evidence of a good balance-sheet, that such small benefit has been derived from the establishments of those large proprietors, who have proved how much may be gained by a judicious system in the increased fertilising powers of lands already under cultivation, as well as in the productiveness of wastes. To take one example—the two farms established by King George the III. in Windsor Great Park, one on a poor sandy soil, the other on a stiff clay, have been productive of little good to the agriculture of the kingdom, because it was considered that they were supported by exhaustless resources, and that what would make a very pretty pet farm, would form but a poor means for subsisting a family.

The improvement of uncultivated land has fallen into disrepute of late, because it has been shewn that *some* land will not pay for its cultivation. It would be as erroneous to deduce from the fact, that there are some waste lands

which will not pay for improving, that, therefore, all uncultivated lands cannot be profitably cultivated; as it would be to presume that there is no waste land which will not bear good industry-rewarding crops. It is as certain that there is an immense quantity of uncultivated land which will pay for improvement, as it is undeniable that a great deal of it cannot be brought under cultivation with any prospects of pecuniary advantage.

The great obstacle to the general introduction of any improvements in farming, has been the disinclination of British farmers, to change the system of management handed down to them from their ancestors. But however attached they may be to systems which have been proved to be lamentably short of perfection, still it cannot but happen that their prejudices must give way before the light of truth. Prove by incontrovertible evidence that the cultivation of waste lands has paid in particular cases, and there need be no apprehension of its being acted on in soils of similar capabilities. Although the British farmer is plentifully endowed with

the spirit of inflexible pertinacity in adhering to old routines, he is nevertheless sufficiently astute when it is made clear to him, that he can improve his interests by following out a particular plan.

To insure success, the improvement of waste lands should only be undertaken after mature consideration, and should never be attempted, unless by those who possess practical knowledge on the subject. The failure of many of the undertakings of this description, is fairly attributable to the commencement of them without a previous consideration of the whole of the circumstances bearing on the various cases. For example—it cannot pay to grow corn on land, however fertile it may be, when there is no means of sending it to a market without incurring a ruinous expense.

Without wishing to go at any length into the question, as to whether or not large farms are for the most part more advantageous than small ones, both to the landlord and the tenant, it may, perhaps, be attended with beneficial results to direct attention to an agricultural territory,

where the estates are small, none exceeding seventy acres, where the soil is made highly productive, in spite of many serious drawbacks, and where the people enjoy many more of the comforts of life than the population of neighbouring countries, which are much more favourably situated for the employment of agriculture. It cannot be uninteresting to discover the reason of this apparent anomaly. Although the soil is subdivided into minute portions, still every occupier possesses an inalienable interest in the land which he tills, so that it conduces manifestly to his benefit to improve it as much as possible. The consequence of this peculiar holding is, that no portion of the soil is suffered to go to waste but is fully cultivated, which enables it to maintain a population of a thousand to the square mile, and to export a large quantity of surplus produce.

The Island of Guernsey, exposed in winter to the full force of those gales of wind which blow with such violence in the English Channel, suffering also from droughts in summer, with a soil certainly not more fertile than that of Great

Britain, is able to export supplies to other countries, and to maintain a population about three times more dense than that which Belgium can feed on the same extent of land, whilst one third of the whole territory is incapable of cultivation. The usual holding of land in this island, is the following. When a party possesses land which he wishes, "to give to rent," as it is locally termed, he receives one-fourth of its value in cash, and five per cent. per annum for the remainder of the purchase money. The land descends to the heirs of the part purchaser, who is, in every point connected with the management of the land, absolute proprietor.

When a tenant, who rents an estate for a short term, improves the property, he does it for the benefit of his landlord, because he may be compelled to pay a larger rent for the estate, when so improved, than if he had allowed it to continue in the same state in which he found it. He may, in reality, be obliged to pay twice for the same thing. In the first place, he must find the money or the labour, which is to him

the same as money, to effect the improvement, and, secondly, his rent may be increased in an exact ratio, to the extent of his outlay on it. It is evident that no tenant, having only a short lease, would improve his farm, unless he were well satisfied that he could receive back again, before the expiration of his term, not only all the capital he has laid out, but also a fair return for the use of his money.

Very different will be the actuating motives of the tenant who possesses an inalienable interest in the estate he occupies. Every improvement will increase his comforts,—he will feel the whole benefit of the application of his money and his industry.

The manufacturing classes may hold improvements in agriculture at a cheap rate. But it would, perhaps, do them no injury to bear in mind, that however useful the arts in which they are engaged may be to the whole body of mankind, the art which supplies them with food cannot but be of equal utility. The mechanist, endowed with powers of the highest order, in inventing and adapting complicated machinery

to the purposes of trade, may deride the quiet, unobtrusive employment which affords him nourishment. Habituated to the contemplation of machinery as affording wealth to a country, he forgets to view, with the importance which its utility demands, the advantages which a nation derives from improved systems of agriculture. If the manufacturing classes would deign to compute the aggregate of gain obtained by a country like Great Britain, by an increase of produce of one bushel of wheat to every acre, they would no doubt have a much higher opinion than they have now, of improved systems of farming.

It is a commonly received opinion that no great amount of intellect is required to manage a farm—that in fact it is a mere system of routine, which can be followed without the exertion of any thinking. It will be found, however, on investigation, that in no art of civilised life is there more advantage gained by skilful and judicious management than in agriculture. A scientific, prudent farmer will earn a good living, and improve the soil from which an illiterate

person cannot procure sufficient to pay his rent, whilst he ruins the land for a time by his unskilful management. There are not many districts in England wanting in proofs of this. Successful agriculture requires a thorough knowledge of several sciences; and slightingly as its improvements may be held, it must not be forgotten that Great Britain supports nearly double the population which she did in 1780. It would be difficult to determine the extent to which the yielding of the British soil may be carried when the management of it is conducted on correct principles, when the great body of British farmers are scientific agriculturists; and when every portion of the soil which can bear cultivation is made subservient to the uses of mankind.

CHAPTER X.

"A thousand years scarce serve to form a State,
An hour may lay it in the dust."

THAT person who has read history without perceiving that a large extent of empire is necessarily attended with weakness in some of its divisions, has studied to little advantage. On inquiring into the causes of the fall of empires, we shall find that when they have been extended, their dismemberment has been effected sometimes very rapidly, and never with much difficulty. The very weight of a large empire, that is stretched into various regions, comprising a population that is not held together by the

uniting bonds of common religion, common language, and community of interest, and whose frontier is proportionately large, bears it down until it crumbles into nothing. It bears the seeds of discord and disunion, within itself, requiring only the employment of some exciting cause for their development.

When a kingdom is composed of a population that speaks one language, has one religion, and is governed by rulers whose interests are those of the nation; divided from neighbouring states by a limited or easily-defended frontier, the probability is, that it will remain intact, neither troubled by foreign aggressions nor by intestine dissensions. It is equally probable that when the reverse of this exists, it will be constantly liable to be shaken, both by attempts from without, and by exertions from within. Nations pride themselves on territorial acquisition. They are led away by the high-sounding words—glory and fame. The national glory is said to be increased by the subjection of aliens, forced to do homage to the national flag. The conqueror of kingdoms is hailed with delight by his countrymen, and

the kingdom of his birth is said to be enriched by his exertions. Let it be remembered, however, that conquests and glory may be too dearly purchased by the loss of blood and treasure. Before any conclusion is drawn as to the advantages which result from the subjugation of a district, it is necessary to take into consideration the sacrifices by which the acquisition is attained, and the expenses attendant on keeping possession. It is a labour of time, and it requires the employment of skilful management so far to amalgamate an alien district with the component parts of a kingdom with which it has had no previous relation, as to cause its people to view the domination of foreigners in a favourable light.

A state that is separated from other kingdoms, by the interposition of the ocean, possesses—when its line of coast is small—extreme facility in resisting any attack on its frontier; but, when the line of coast to be defended is extended, a landing on its shore can be obstructed by no means with the same readiness, for the enemy has then the opportunity of assault-

ing on a point the least expected. There can be but little doubt that the best defence of a kingdom, that is divided from other states by the sea, consists in its navy, as its main defence can then be brought to bear on any portion of its frontier. But to insure success, its fleet must be overwhelmingly superior to that of the adversaries, for their forces can remain in their own ports as long as may be desired, and select their point of attack.

The extent of frontier that separates the entire British empire (including all its dependencies) from other states is very considerable, consisting as well of sea coast as of land boundaries. Some portions of the land frontier that is to be defended by Great Britain, are so situated as to be peculiarly open to assaults from foreign powers, and at so great a distance from the centre of the empire, as to render them easily accessible, and capable of being guarded by means only of an immense outlay, and even then with much difficulty. When in addition to the unfavourable position of its land frontier, it is remembered that the population of those

divisions of the empire which are thus badly situated for defence, is by no means thoroughly amalgamated with the integral portions, it must be conceded that Great Britain is surrounded by obstacles to the prevention of foreign aggression of no ordinary magnitude. In every division of the globe, has the small island of Great Britain an extensive frontier to defend. Whilst the navy of the empire was able by its courage, and its numbers, to drive all other navies from the seas, there was little to apprehend for the safety of its sea coast; and as supplies could be forwarded to any portion of the territory, in consequence of the marine highway being always open, it necessarily tended to facilitate the defence of the land frontier also. But *now*, rival navies have sprung up, that were scarcely heard of previously; one at any rate, but little inferior to the British navy, formed as it is out of the same sterling stuff.

The British empire, extended into every division of the earth, composed of nations having little affinity, each portion separated from the others by hostile and powerful kingdoms, is the

most conspicuous example of a people with great energy, but with a confined territory, carrying their dominion from the tropic heat to the polar ice. No empire of either ancient or modern times ever had so extensive a boundary. The actual frontier of the boasted empire of the Romans dwindles into insignificance, when compared with the boundaries of Great Britain, at the same time that its situation rendered it highly capable of resisting attacks, as each part was connected with the other. How differently is Great Britain situated! Her empire is scattered, rival nations anxious to enrich themselves by her downfall, await with impatience a favourable opportunity to attack her dispersed forces. And, so far situated are some portions of this colossal empire from its centre, that kingdoms might be won and lost, months before the governing powers would even apprehend an attack.

When the strength of the piers, when the height and span of an arch are rightly proportioned, and the arch stones well adapted, the arch will endure; but when there is any dispropor-

tion, the whole will fall, and bring down with it the superstructures that have been raised upon it. In the empire of Great Britain, the body is not in a ratio to the limbs; the body is small, but compact, whilst the enormous limbs—immensely disproportioned—stretch out into every division of the earth.

The British empire is held together by the energy and the bravery of the dominant nation. But a time may come when that energy will be insufficient to master the opposing obstacles, and the courage that never failed, may be unable to withstand the exertions of large masses. The nations under British control may some day learn that union is strength, and by acting on it they may, by possibility, demonstrate by a simultaneous attack that they are stronger than their rulers give them credit for.

When a nation is so circumstanced, as to be enabled to carry on all its operations by means of such a system of taxation, as presses so lightly and so equably on all classes of the community, that the burthen of providing for the wants of

the executive is so minute, as to be felt in no injurious degree by the large masses from whom the larger portion of its revenue is drawn; its rulers may endeavour, without impropriety, to establish new markets, new fields of enterprise, even at the cost of considerable expenditure. For, the increase of individual taxation necessary to defray the enlarged wants of the government, will not, under these circumstances, have the effect of crushing the productive industry of any portion of the population. So far, indeed, from its being probable that such a course would be attended with ill effects to the great bulk of the nation, it might be anticipated that if undertaken only after mature consideration—the finances of the country being in a prosperous condition—the increase of individual taxation would, in point of fact, constitute merely a loan to assist the government in its prudent endeavours to enlarge the resources of the country, and instead of rendering it necessary to impose, on future occasions, a similar rate of taxation, it would have the effect of diminishing further levies on the

industry of the tax-paying portion of the community.

But when a nation, whose energies are borne down by the weight of enormous taxation, attempts to recover itself by a lavish expenditure of immense sums in opening new markets for the employment of its enterprize, it is not improbable—unless the selection of the field of operations be made with consummate judgment—that, instead of lessening the burthen of the tax-payer, a still further increase of the revenue will be required to meet the extra liabilities of the country, consequent on its new undertakings.

If nations would stoop to take example from the conduct of individuals, they would learn that a prudent, cautious person avoids entering into any large undertaking without having previously considered it in all its bearings, and unless he be well convinced that it offers a fair prospect of a good return. Further, they would gather, that he would not dream of extending his operations into districts so remote as to be beyond the reach of his own observation, so long as there existed an opening for his energy

close to him. They might learn still further, that when any portion of the trade of a private individual is so far removed from him, that he cannot exercise a constant, searching superintendence over it, there is every probability that it will be less productive than when he has it in his power to exert a vigilant scrutiny into all its most minute ramifications.

When the expenditure of a colony exceeds its revenue, whilst no advantage is gained by the home consumer in the purchase of any article required by him, or when the benefit he derives is not equivalent to his share of the taxes which are imposed to meet the excess of expenditure over the revenues of the colony, it cannot be otherwise than a manifest loss to him. But when in addition to the direct cost of a colony to the mother country, the productions of that colony are favoured by discriminating duties, the loss to the home consumer is still greater.

Attempts have been made to justify the expediency of the maintenance of the colonies of Great Britain, on the plea, that if they were to

be given up, they would be taken possession of by other nations, who would debar British subjects from any participation in the commerce of those colonies which were previously theirs, or would admit them only on such unfavourable terms as to amount to a virtual prohibition. Supposing that this dreaded contingency were to arise, taking for granted, that any nation were so far to stultify itself as to levy a duty on the produce of an unprofitable colony when purchased by British subjects, equal to the excess of the expenditure over the revenue; the British consumer would be in the same position in which he was formerly, at the same time that he could then resort to other markets fully as good as those from which he would be excluded. But it must be borne in mind, that it has been left to England to set the example of acquiring expensive dependencies at any cost. No one, however, need entertain any serious alarm, that a nation should prevent their customers from partaking in their commerce,—from coming to their markets for articles which other people do not require.

In consequence of the advantages which accrue to that country which possesses such colonies as more than repay the money that has been expended on them, a very general feeling has arisen, that the interests of a nation are necessarily advanced by the increase of her colonial possessions. Led away by the mutual benefits which arise, both to the parent stock, and its off-shoot, by the reciprocal relations between an old country, and a really valuable colony, too many persons are apt to imagine, that the rearing of colonies must, as a matter of course, exert a beneficial influence on the condition of the population, out of whose pockets the money is raised by which they are supported. The advantages are assuredly very great to both parties, when such colonies only are formed as are profitable, either from the fertility of the soil, the value of the raw productions, or, indeed, from any other cause which enables the young country to pay back, in full, and something more, the capital that has been expended on it by the mother country. It matters little how the payment is made,—whe-

ther in one way or another,—it is only requisite that there should be *some* advantage to the mother country, as a set off, in full, against her outlay on it. Some people are unable to view with any other than a favorable eye, the relations between an old country and a colony. Whether a colony is profitable, or whether it is not, zealous advocates are never wanting to show the *possible* advantages which *may* arise from it. Men who are sufficiently clear-sighted on all other points, dazzled, in the first place, by the mere acquisition of territory, and, in the second place, by the produce that has been raised in some colonial possessions, are unable to withstand the general impression, that all colonies must, of necessity, be highly beneficial to the mother country.

The residents in each of the two non-penal Australian colonies inveigh, in no measured terms, on the expenditure of Great Britain in the two convict colonies. It must not be forgotten, however, that the penal colonies make a return for the money which is spent in the charge of the convicts, with whom they are

entrusted. The mother country considers, that she is well rid of her abandoned characters, although they may cost her a large sum for their safe maintenance.

It would appear that England is in a false position with regard to those Australian Colonies which do not render her good service by relieving her of the custody of the worst of her population. With the view of establishing non-convict colonies in New Holland, two plans have been tried, each of which has cost the tax paying portion of the home population, immense sums of money. Under one system, the settlers were given grants of land of immense extent; this was altered because it was found that there were obstacles to the working of this system, which could not be overcome. The other plan, avoiding the errors of the first, involved the opposite extreme: for by its provisions, no land could be purchased without paying a very large price for it,—this again has suffered the fate of the former.

The large sums which have been expended by the mother country in the younger of the

two non-convict colonies must be in the recollection of all who take an interest in colonial affairs. It will not soon be forgotten, in how short a time, this large amount of money was consumed, and it must be borne in mind, that this colony which was crippled so soon with such a debt, was established on a system which was stated by its supporters, not to require any pecuniary sacrifice on the part of the mother country.

It may, perhaps, be argued by the advocates of colonisation, that it is unfair to strike a balance between the debtor and creditor side of the account of an old country, with its offshoot, after it has been established only four or five years. Conceding this point, it must be admitted, that a colony on which large sums have been expended, and which has been established eleven years, must have made great progress, providing the capabilities of the country were such as to render it well fitted for colonisation, and providing also that a proper system were adopted.

In 1840, the colony of Western Australia—

the elder of the two non-convict Australian Colonies—had been founded eleven years. It will be interesting to look into the expenditure of the mother country on this colony, to ascertain the numbers of the present population, and the quantity of goods received by the mother country from it during the period of eleven years; by which we shall be enabled to form an opinion, as to whether the advantages derived by Great Britain from its colonization, have been commensurate with her outlay upon it. In order to guard against even an appearance of unfairness, the statement of the expenditure, and of the amount of the population, will be taken from the "Report on the Statistics of Western Australia in 1840," by the Colonial Committee of Correspondence, published in the colony.

In the fifth page of this report, a return is given of European population in Western Australia, from the year 1832 to 1840, both inclusive. The return for the year 1840 is subjoined:—

YEAR.	MALES.		FEMALES.		TOTAL.
	Above 12 years of age.	Under 12 years of age.	Above 12 years of age.	Under 12 years of age.	
1840	1,205	302	557	290	2,354

At page 25 of the same report, is an account of the public expenditure in Western Australia, from the 1st of February, 1832, to the 31st of March, 1840. It will be sufficient to give the grand total:—

	Colonial Civil Services.			Parliamentary Civil Services.			Commissariat Military Serv.			Total Expenditure		
Grand Total.	£ 29,485	s. 8	d. 8	£ 35,745	s. 17	d. 8	£ 133,300	s. 16	d. 2	£ 198,532	s. 2	d. 6

This, then, is the total expenditure during eight years and two months. But to this, must be added the probable expenditure during the three years unaccounted for in the statistical report, to arrive at the total expenditure since the formation of the colony. The expenditure in the year 1833, is less than the expenditure during eleven months of the year 1832, by the sum of £3,000 in round numbers. If, there-

fore, we take the expenditure in the year 1833, as the yearly expenditure during the three years unaccounted for in the report, it cannot but afford an approximation to the truth. Indeed, there can be but little doubt, that it will be under the actual sum expended during that period, because the first years of a colony, are like the beginnings of all commercial speculations. The expenditure in 1833 was £22,855. This sum multiplied by 3 will give £68,565. as the total expenditure during the three years unaccounted for in the report. If to this, be added, £198,532. the expenditure from the 1st. of February 1832, to the 31st. of March 1840 the product will be £267,097., the total expenditure since the formation of the colony, to the 31st. of March 1840.

At page 26 of the same report, the colonial revenue from the year 1832 to 1840, both inclusive, is stated to be £30,435. 17s. 1d., and the colonial revenue of the year 1832, is returned as £521. 6s. 7d. If then we take the colonial revenue for the three years, previous to

1832, to be equal each year to the colonial revenue of 1832—which must, without a doubt, yield a sum greater than the actual revenue raised in the colony during that period—we shall find that the colonial revenue in the three years, which are unaccounted for in this report, will be equal to the sum of £1,563 19s. 9d.. No one, however, can doubt that this far exceeds the revenue actually raised in the colony in that time. When the sum of £1,563 19s. 9d. is added to £30,435 17s. 1d., the total £31,999 16s. 10d. will be the revenue raised in the colony from its formation to 1840.

Now, by deducting £31,999, the total colonial revenue from £267,097, the total expenditure since the establishment of the colony, it will leave £235,098, the sum expended by Great Britain in this colony, up to the 31st of March, 1840.

It must be remembered, that in addition to this sum, there are various items of considerable amount, not accounted for in any return from the colony. And although they may appear under various heads, in the general return of

the expenditure of the British empire, the public would never have been rendered liable for them, if the colony of Swan River had not been established. For example, the expenses incurred by the various men of war that have been engaged in founding the colony, and in protecting its interests should, in fairness, be placed to the debtor side of the account between this settlement and the mother country. It may be said that no man of war was commissioned for the especial service of this colony, and that therefore it would not be just to append an account of the expenses of any Queen's ship that may have been ordered to the colony for a time. But it is self-evident, that when the duty to be performed by any branch of the public service is increased, a proportionate increase of expenditure must follow. When colonies are formed, means of protecting those colonies, as well by sea as by land, must also be formed. Whilst any portion of her Majesty's sea forces are engaged in the protection of a colony, the expenses of that portion, whilst so employed, should be placed to the account of that colony,

just as much as the expenses of the land forces. Again, the return of the expenditure by the British public on this colony, under the head of Commissariat Military services does not contain the whole of the expenses of the land forces which are stationed in it. For instance, it does not contain the money paid in Great Britain as half pay to the officers, and pensions to the men, neither does it comprise any account of the sums expended in the relief of the Troops stationed there.

Now, it must be obvious, that if it were possible to arrive at a knowledge of the "*actual*" expenditure by Great Britain on this colony, it would very much exceed the sum of £235,097, which has been taken as the amount expended, but which must be very much under the mark, because many items of expenditure are entirely omitted, and those which have been brought forward, are understated. But the case is so strong, that it is unnecessary to urge inquiry into every point, or to note any item, unless on the most unquestionable evidence.

The exports from this colony to Great

Britain, from its formation to March, 1840, have been very inconsiderable; somewhere about three vessels having been freighted with wool grown in the colony. It could scarcely be anticipated, that anything like a respectable export trade could be carried on with a population—including all ages—of only 2,354, and whilst stock was very high priced.

If we deduct from the return of European population, the children under twelve years of age, it will leave 1,762 as the number from which the productive industry of the colony is to be calculated. Before the young children contained in this return will be grown to manhood, the expenditure of the British public on this colony will be doubled or trebled. With many items of large amount omitted, the expenditure has been £235,000 on a grown-up population of 1,762 persons. So that each one of these 1,762 persons has cost the tax-paying portion of the British public *at least* £133. These 1,762 must manage their finances well to pay back, under any shape, the £235,000 that have been expended in their colony.

It may be said that the home manufactures have benefitted by the establishment of this colony, but it is difficult to conceive how that can have happened. For, as it is clear, that a man's capability of purchasing manufactured goods is in a direct ratio to his success, it is evident that when he suffers severe losses, he must control his expenditure, so as not to exceed his means. The self same thing holds good with regard to communities. But even taking it for granted, that the 1,762 persons, who constitute the grown up population of this colony, have not impaired their interests by emigration—they would surely be in no way better able to purchase the productions of the manufacturing districts at home, than if they had remained in Great Britain, *providing* public money had been expended among them to the same extent it has been in New Holland.

The establishment of unprofitable colonies which act as a mere drag on the resources of the country which supports them, is not only the cause of a pecuniary sacrifice as far as those colonies alone are concerned, but also of much

loss in another and more important manner. Owing to the commercial industry of a nation being directed into trading with its colonies, it results that the attention of its merchants is, to a certain degree, withdrawn from the commercial capabilities of other parts of the world. Now, when a country maintains colonies which are ill-fitted for the purposes of trade, it is more than probable that their establishment will have an injurious effect on its commerce, by drawing into unprofitable channels—although made at an enormous expense—that capital and that industry which would be much more advantageously employed elsewhere. From the manner in which Great Britain has formed colonies, we are almost forced to believe, that an opinion existed that it was impossible to uphold British commerce in the position it occupied, but by some huge effort. Now, it must be admitted that, if that effort had been made in the right place, and withal judiciously carried out, the effect would have been, that loss would have occurred to none of the various classes of society, whilst great benefits would have been conferred

on large numbers. Notwithstanding the tenacity with which the opinion is held, and the vehemence with which it is promulgated, that colonies are indispensable to commerce, it is susceptible of being refuted. To what amount has America taxed herself in the formation of colonies, to keep her stars and stripes on the ocean? Although young in years, she is old in wisdom; for she leaves the establishment of colonies, unable to pay their own expenses, to other countries, whilst she derives immense advantages from them, in providing her commercial marine with supplies, by which she carries off from before the eyes of the wondering colonists, the treasures which the depths of the ocean yield up to her.

The Dutch, by their establishments in the various islands in the Indian Archipelago, and the Americans by their unceasing activity and good management, leave the British far behind in their commerce with that rich cluster of islands, in spite of the far-sighted policy of the enlightened Sir Stamford Raffles. The freedom from fiscal restrictions, which characterises

the port of Singapore, is, of itself, insufficient to place the British on a par with either the Dutch or the Americans in their intercourse with the neighbouring islands. What great results might not fairly have been anticipated, if some portion of the capital and industry that has been wasted in New Holland, had been judiciously applied to the advancement of the interests of British commerce in the Indian Archipelago?

In addition to the enormous expenditure of the British people in founding and maintaining numerous highly expensive colonies, they also spend immense sums in various other ways, which have the effect of benefitting one portion of the community at the cost of another. It is evident that Great Britain, from her peculiar position, requires but a small force, whether military or naval, for her own protection; indeed, nearly the whole of the British army and navy is occupied with the defence of foreign possessions. Besides this vast direct expenditure, much more is indirectly paid.

Notwithstanding the large sums of money furnished by those classes who are engaged in

other pursuits, in fostering the interests of manufacturers, the benefits arising from that expenditure are very little, if at all, felt by the great body who form the manufacturing class, but are, on the contrary, engrossed by a few. If the number of hours, during which the producing journeymen of many manufactures have to labour, be contrasted with the pay which they receive in return, it will be found, that with all their application, and with all their confinement, they are only enabled to scrape together a mere subsistence. On the other hand, the circumstances of the employers are as affluent as those of the employed are indigent. No two situations can afford perhaps a more unequal contrast among the members of the same body, than the condition of the cotton lords, and their compeers the princely merchants, with the penurious state of the real producers of all the wealth of the entire body—the hard-worked, but little-paid journeymen. It may, by possibility, become a question, how far it is judicious to levy heavy contributions, in whatever shape, from large portions of a

nation; for the advantage of one class; but which, instead of exerting its beneficial influence on all its members, is engrossed by only a small fractional part.

It would not be difficult to show that the general interests of the manufacturing classes are not benefitted by the formation of expensive, unprofitable, colonies to the extent which most persons are in the habit of imagining. When that proportion of the general taxation of the country, which is drawn from the resources of those classes who are interested in manufactures, is increased by imposts, in order to meet those liabilities of the country, which arise from the establishment of colonies not able to support themselves, a question arises, whether the aid received by those classes of society from such colonies, may not be more than counterbalanced by their share of the taxation of the country. It would be only necessary to look at the matter in this light, provided Great Britain were the only manufacturing kingdom in the world, and, in consequence, that all other nations were forced to come to her for all the manufac-

tured goods they might require. But, seeing that such is not the fact, it is evident that every impost levied on the manufacturing classes, has the effect of rendering them less able to compete with foreign manufacturers. It may, perhaps, become a question at no very distant period, in what manner the British nation, as a manufacturing body, can support itself in its present high position. It may be true that the skill and the industry so necessary in manufactures, are possessed in an eminent degree by the British people; and it may be equally true that the mineral treasures of Great Britain, must always exercise considerable influence on the markets, from which the inhabitants of the whole world are supplied with manufactured goods. But it must not be forgotten, that a nation with manufacturing advantages of secondary importance, may be capable of underselling another state in its OWN market, provided its people enjoy a greater exemption from taxation, than those with whom they have to compete.

A great deal has been said on the advantages of free trade—on the benefits of having an

unrestricted commerce. It has been especially spoken of, with reference to one of the first necessaries of life—bread. It has been argued, that it is highly impolitic to fetter the trade in corn in any way, and that, if bread were cheaper, the price of manufactured goods would be proportionately less. We are told that if trade were unshackled, all classes of society would be benefitted. But when large sums are expended by the public in pushing forward one branch of national industry, the advantages arising from such expenditure may be experienced, not by the entire body of the people, but only by a portion. Free trade can only be a chimera, so long as numerous possessions are held, which are not in such a state, as to be able to defray the cost of their establishments.

The whole agricultural population pay largely towards the maintenance of the various dependencies of the British empire. These possessions may be of considerable advantage to the shipping and manufacturing interests of the country, but it is difficult to perceive how they can repay the agriculturists their share of the cost

of maintenance. Indeed, if the public were not saddled with the expense of providing for the necessities of unprofitable colonies, the manufacturing portion of the nation would be relieved from much of their present burthen, and would, in consequence, be enabled to sell the produce of their industry, at a cheaper rate than they now do.

It has been urged, that it must be a politic measure to furnish the manufacturer with cheap bread, because bread is the staple of life. But it appears to be overlooked, that there are many other articles, which are to civilised man, inhabiting a cold climate, just as much necessaries of life as even bread itself. Now, it is clear that every description of produce must be much dearer, when the persons who are employed in raising it, are burthened with heavy taxes, than when their share of the public imposts is comparatively light.

It is strange that an outcry should be raised against a protecting duty, as applied to the produce raised by that portion of a community, which has to pay largely for the maintenance of

establishments which only effect a partial good —which merely benefit a portion of the whole. If it had been held, that all possessions which could not defray their necessary expenditure were unprofitable to the great bulk of the nation, however advantageous they may be to certain classes; and that all protecting duties were essentially bad; then indeed, would it be just to call for a withdrawal of that duty on the staple article supplied by that large proportion of the entire population which suffers from all those measures which tend to keep up large establishments, in all parts of the world, for the exclusive advantage of particular classes. But it is strange, that those persons, for whose advantage the colonies are retained, should be the loudest clamourers against the protecting duty on bread, when it is confessedly for their advantage that colonial possessions are formed and retained.

What is the grand argument of all writers on the benefits of colonies? Is it not that they are good markets for our manufactures? Surely, then, if markets, for the sale of the

manufactured goods of Great Britain, are made and retained at the cost of immense sums from the agricultural population,—which markets may be of service to manufacturers, but of doubtful advantage to persons engaged in agriculture—it is rather too hard for those classes that are benefitted by this large expenditure to endeavour to wrest from that large body, the protecting-duty which acts as a counterbalance to the immense advantages which they enjoy.

The advocates of the advantages of colonies to the nation, appear to overlook the circumstance, that no benefit accrues to manufacturers in sending their goods abroad, instead of disposing of them nearer home. The supporters of colonies would wish to make it appear that every export from Great Britain to a colony, is so much gained; they seem to overlook the fact, that the inhabitants of Great Britain must purchase manufactured goods, just as much as these who live in colonies.

When emigrants are so unfortunate as to select a colony, which is not well adapted for the exercise of their peculiar talents, it is

evident that they cannot become purchasers of British manufactures to the extent they would have been, if they had never left their native shores. When a colony is in a thriving condition, it does manifest good to the Home manufactures, because it can exchange one article of commerce for another. But when it is not in a prosperous state, so far from benefitting the manufacturing classes, it is a positive injury; because they have to pay towards its maintenance, and do not receive in return a better—if so good—a sale for their produce, as if the same population had never removed from Great Britain.

There is, however, one portion of the nation that is benefitted, whether a colony is prospering or otherwise. Whether a colony is thriving or whether it is not, those classes of society that are engaged in conveying merchandise between it and the mother country, are immediately and directly benefitted. However much the public generally, may lose by the establishment of a colony, the shipping interest is sure to gain.

The monies expended in the establishment

and maintenance of our colonial possessions, are the true protecting duties on British manufactures. And eminently injurious they are to the interests of all those classes of the community, who are not either manufacturers or the carriers of merchandise; for they take larger sums out of the earnings of the British people, than return, in consequence of them, in the shape of profit, into the pockets of the manufacturers.

The labourers of a country may be likened to its back-bone; and the owners of land and capital, or the means of making the most of such labour, to its nerves and muscles. As the muscles of the back derive their capability of acting from the nerves, which supply them with power, and their means of rendering that power available for useful purposes, from that great staple, the bone to which they are attached—so the farmers, possessed of knowledge and capital, are dependent on the owners of land for the power of applying such knowledge and such capital; and to the labourers, for the means of rendering such an application of their informa-

tion and money as profitable as possible. It is as absurd to presume that the interests of the three great classes, the land-owners, the farmers, and the labourers, are not intimately blended and dependent the one upon the other, as it would be to assert that the nerves, muscles, or back-bone, could act in any useful or profitable manner, the one without the other. As the various portions of bony matter which form, in the aggregate, that firm and solidly compact mass—the back-bone, are so bound together by sinews and ligaments, into one strong body, as to be able to resist the force of very considerable pressure,—so the individual members of that great class of society on which the true prosperity of every nation is based, and from which its daily subsistence as well as its most brilliant successes, of whatever description, are derived,—the labouring population—are united together by the durable bond of mutual self-interest, in such a manner, as to form one close, firm whole. But when, in addition to the support which each member of the labouring class yields to his fellow, the intrinsic

strength of that body is increased by the intimate connection of the land-owners and the farming yeomanry, then, indeed, is the mass which is the result of this powerful combination, as compact and as indissoluble as it is in the nature of any human institution to be; able to withstand enormous pressure from all other bodies, and capable of performing prodigious efforts of usefulness, almost as beneficial to the interests of every other section or class, as they are advantageous to itself.

A nation that possesses within herself, the means of supplying nearly all her wants, is less liable to meet with sudden commercial checks, than when, by the nature of her relations, she throws herself on the support of other kingdoms for any great essential of civilized existence. For, she will then be much less liable to be affected by any of the various causes of contention, which bring out into bold relief the bad passions of our nature. The ambitious rivalries of other states, each striving for the mastery, each wasting its strength for mere empty sounds and titles, will produce but a

passing cloud on her quiet horizon. She will enjoy repose, whilst the blood-hounds of war, carry anarchy and destruction amongst the inoffensive inhabitants of surrounding nations. The sciences and the arts will flourish in her bosom under the fostering wings of peace; the energies of her people will be directed into profitable channels, whilst wide-spreading disorder holds undisputed sway on every side of her. Thus will she present a living example of a bright oasis of peace surrounded on all sides by the desert of war.

THE END.

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